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THE BLENDED-LIGHT LAMP AND OTHER MERCURY LAMPS WITH IMPROVED COLOUR RENDERING

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621.327.3 : 621.327.9

Compared with ordinary electric lamps gas-discharge lamps have the advantage of a much higher efficiency; for certain applications, however, they have the disadvantage that the colour of the objects illuminated deviates disturbingly from that by daylight. In this article the methods are examined by which this objection can be met in the case of high-pressure mercury lamps. There are two methods which may be considered: the application of fluorescent substances, and the blending of mercury light with the light of ordinary electric lamps. The first method led to the development of mercury lamps with fluorescent bulbs, the second to the design of fixtures for blended light and to the development of a blended light lamp which combines incandescent lamp and mercury lamp in one system. The degree to which the light sources obtained approach daylight is studied by means of the block method.

Upon the appearance of metallic vapour lamps which were suitable for practical use it was to be expected that the pronounced colour of the light of these lamps and the resulting unnatural colour of the illuminated objects would prevent the unrestricted application of this type of light source. Since, however, the unusually high efficiency made their use very attractive, means have been sought of improving their colour rendering.

In an earlier article in this periodical¹⁾ the method was discussed by which "white" light²⁾, *i.e.* light which makes a satisfactory colour rendering possible, can be obtained with tubular luminescence lamps of low mercury pressure. We shall here examine the method by which the same problem can be brought to a satisfactory practical conclusion in the case of high-pressure mercury lamps.

For this purpose several new types of lamps were developed from the high-pressure mercury lamp, particularly the high-pressure mercury lamp with luminescent bulb (HPL) and the blended light lamp (ML), the latter of which combines a filament and a mercury discharge tube in one bulb. Before dealing with these lamps and the way in which white light can be obtained with the lamps alone or in combination with incandescent lamps, we

shall first discuss briefly the properties of the high-pressure mercury lamp itself.

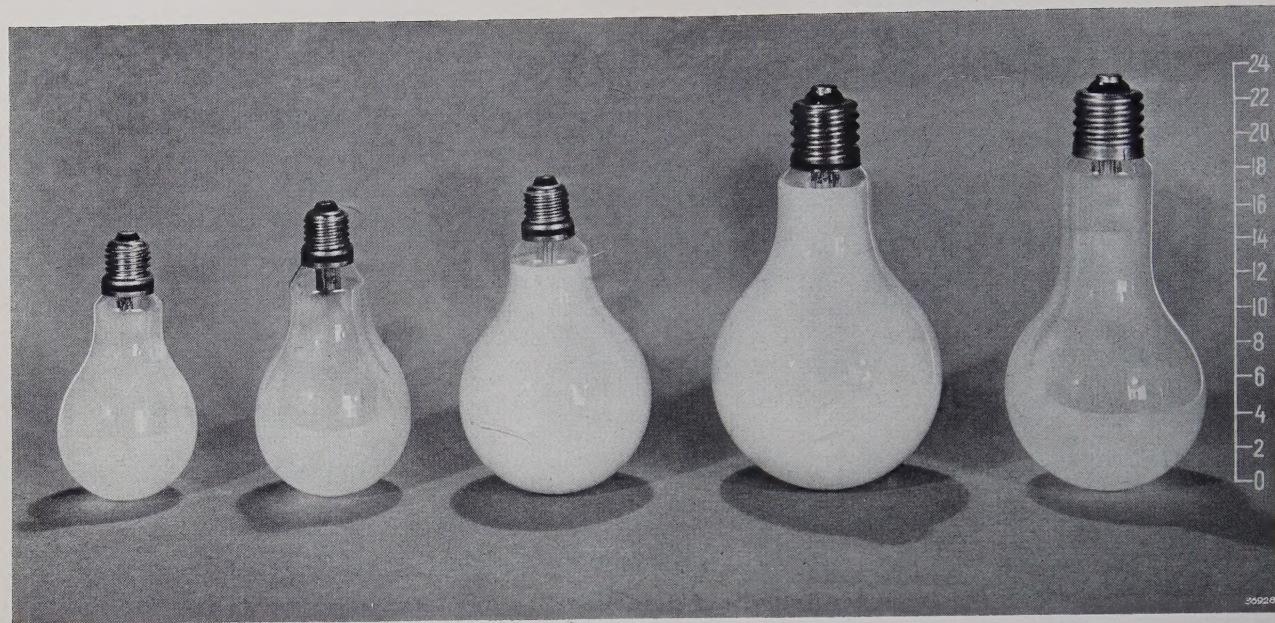
High-pressure mercury lamp, type HP

In the first volume of this periodical³⁾ the high-pressure mercury lamp HP 300 was described which differed from the earlier low-pressure mercury lamps by its greater efficiency, its extremely small size and its low electrical power consumption (75 W), which made it possible to use the lamp for indoor illumination also. With the same consumption and providing the same light flux (3 000 lm), a new type of lamp has since been developed which, in different models, has found increasing application within the last few years. This lamp differs from its predecessor chiefly by its lower ignition and burning voltage, which for 220 V mains voltage makes it possible to replace the leakage transformer formerly needed by a choke, which is cheaper and which, moreover, causes fewer electrical losses. As to the external appearance of the lamp, this also made it possible, thanks to the lower working voltage, to replace the special base with pins by an ordinary Edison or Swan base, which did much to promote the use of the new lamp. In the ordinary model the bulb is inside-frosted. The base is provided with a green ring as a warning

¹⁾ Philips techn. Rev. 4, 337, 1939.

²⁾ Philips techn. Rev. 2, 1, 1937; 4, 66, 1939.

³⁾ Philips techn. Rev. 1, 129, 1936.



a b c d e

Fig. 1. The high-pressure mercury lamps HP 300, HP 500, HPL 300, HPL 500 and the blended-light lamp ML 500. The HPL lamps have a bulb which is covered on the inside with a layer of a fluorescent material, the blended-light lamp ML 500 contains, in addition to the mercury discharge tube, a filament which provides half the total light flux. To the extreme right a cm scale. The first three lamps have an Edison base and are also made with Swan base; the last two lamps have a Goliath base.

that the lamp may not be screwed into any socket but only in a special holder which is part of a circuit containing a suitable series apparatus. This measure is especially important when mercury lamps and incandescent filament lamps are used at the same time, as for instance in the fixtures for blended light mentioned later. In such cases it is best, if possible, to use mercury lamps and ordinary lamps with different bases.

In addition to this new lamp, which has kept the old type number HP 300, a somewhat larger type HP 500 of 120 W, 5 000 lm is also manufactured. The action of these two lamps corresponds almost

exactly with that of the previously described high-pressure mercury lamp, except for the fact that the ignition voltage is now lowered by an auxiliary electrode which, inside the lamp itself, is connected to one of the main electrodes *via* a current-limiting resistance.

Figs. 1a and b show these two types of lamp while in fig. 2 a cross section is given of the mercury lamp HP 300. In table 1 the most important data are given. The starting time, *i.e.* the time necessary for the lamp to reach its normal working state, is several minutes. During this time the power consumed and the light flux developed increase gradually. After switching off, the lamp must first cool for several minutes before being able to ignite again. This peculiarity limits the use of the lamp to cases where it is unnecessary to switch the lamp on and off in rapid succession.

Table 1. Properties of HP lamps.

	HP 300	HP 500
light flux	3 000 lm	5 000 lm
consumption (lamp alone)	75 W	120 W
losses in choke (220 V A.C. mains)	8 W	12 W
ditto with leakage transformer (115—125 V A.C. mains)	17 W	23 W
efficiency with choke	36 lm/W	38 lm/W
ditto with leakage transformer	32.5 lm/W	35 lm/W
starting time	4.5 min	4.5 min

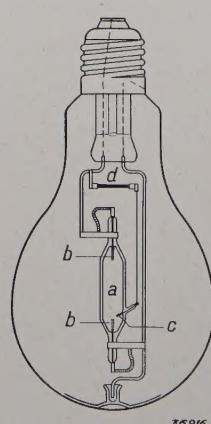


Fig. 2. The mercury lamp HP 300. In the discharge tube *a*, in addition to the main electrodes *b*, there is an auxiliary electrode *c* to one side, which is connected with one of the main electrodes *via* a resistance *d*.

The latest models of the series apparatus, over which the HP lamps must be connected, are of such small dimensions that no difficulty is experienced in building them into fittings, etc. Fig. 3 shows the choke coil (220 volt mains) and the leakage transformer (115-125 volt mains) for the mercury lamp HP 300. The corresponding appliances for the mercury lamp HP 500 are about 1 cm higher.

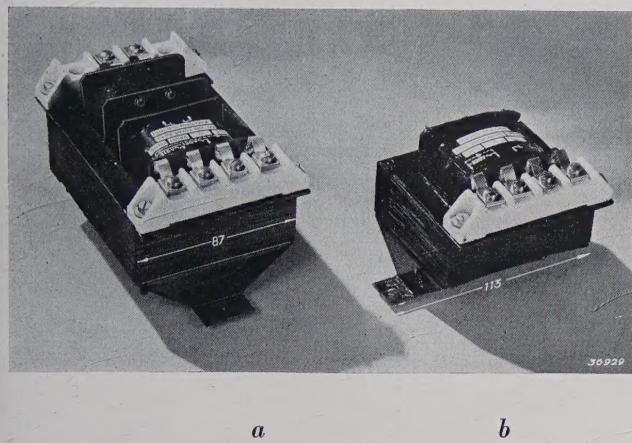


Fig. 3. Series apparatus for the mercury lamp HP 300: a) leakage transformer for mains of 115-125 V. b) choke coil for 220 V mains. The corresponding apparatus for the mercury lamp HP 500 are 14 and 12 mm higher, respectively (113 mm is not the width of the core, but the total width of the choke coil including the feet).

The light of the HP lamps consists mainly of the well-known yellow, green and blue-violet mercury lines with a very weak continuous background (fig. 4). The use of these lamps with no colour correction will as a rule result in a pronounced colour change of the illuminated objects.

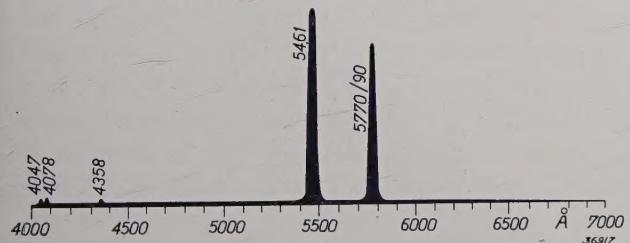


Fig. 4. Spectral distribution of the light of the high-pressure mercury lamps HP 300 and HP 500.

Nevertheless an extensive and varied sphere of use for these lamps has grown up, partly in spite of the peculiar colour of the light, in cases where the high efficiency is the deciding factor, and partly just because of that colour or of other properties of the light such as the greater acuity of vision which can be attained with mercury illumination⁴⁾. HP lamps are widely used for public lighting in cities

or for general illumination in the metal industry, while they are also used with great success for the illumination of white or coloured advertising signs and for flood lighting lawns or groups of trees which assume an especially natural appearance in this light because of the high content of green radiation in the mercury light. Applications based upon improved colour contrast are found in the illumination of coal sorting belts where the mercury light increases the contrast between coal and stone, or in the marking department of construction workshops and plate workshops, where the lines drawn with a copper stylus on the iron come out very clearly in the mercury light. Surface flaws in tin plate, nickel plate or chromium plated objects, on enamelled products, on porcelain, on glossy paper are more easily observed by the light of HP lamps than by ordinary white light. The inspection of plate glass before it is placed in the cooling ovens is based not only upon colour contrast but also upon visual acuity. In conclusion the use of HP lamps in photographic enlarging apparatus⁵⁾ may be mentioned.

High-pressure mercury lamp with colour correction, type HPL

The colour rendering of the HP lamps, which is inadequate for ordinary purposes, has been improved in different ways. In the first place it is possible to cover the inside of the bulb of the HP lamp with a layer of fluorescent material. In this fluorescent layer the conversion into light takes place of the ultra-violet radiation which is excited in the mercury discharge and which is otherwise lost by absorption in the glass of the bulb. The fluorescent material, which gives a continuous spectrum, is so chosen that as much red light as possible is obtained upon conversion, which red light is entirely missing in the natural mercury light. This brings about a very considerable colour correction. The light flux hereby remains unchanged: the fluorescence light approximately compensates for the loss of primary mercury light which is absorbed in the fluorescent layer. Electrically also the lamps with fluorescent bulb HPL 300 and HPL 500 (fig. 1c and d) are exactly like the mercury lamps HP 300 and HP 500, respectively. The bulb of the HPL lamps is made slightly larger than that of the HP lamps since this makes the efficiency of the fluorescent layer higher.

Although important, the colour correction in the HPL lamps is nevertheless not such that the lamps can be recommended for every use: they do not

⁴⁾ Philips techn. Rev. 1, 215, 1936.

⁵⁾ Philips techn. Rev. 3, 91, 1938.

give "white" light. This could hardly have been expected since the available quantity of ultra-violet radiation in the discharge, even with the optimum conversion efficiency, is insufficient to provide a complete colour correction. The HPL lamps are nevertheless suitable for all cases where it is unnecessary to be able to determine accurately the finer shades of colour. They can therefore be used for street lighting as well as for factories, workshops, garages, storerooms, etc. For photography on extra red-sensitive panchromatic material the HPL lamp may also very well be used and even gives an extraordinarily faithful reproduction of the colour relations⁶⁾.

Blended light of mercury and incandescent filament lamps

For cases in which the HPL lamp is unable to render the colour gradation satisfactorily, the mercury light may be blended with ordinary electric light. There are special fixtures for this purpose, for interior lighting (fig. 5) as well as for use out



Fig. 5. Blended-light fitting. Enamelled reflector for workshop illumination, containing three ordinary electric lamps and one mercury lamp.

of doors. In the blended light thus obtained the excess of red rays from the electric lamp serves to make up the corresponding shortage in the light of the mercury lamp. By a well chosen construction of the fixture and a correct relative arrangement of the different lamps, a satisfactory blending of the two kinds of light can be obtained without the formation of coloured shadows. An extra advantage of this blended light is, that upon switching on, a large part

of the normal light flux is immediately available, namely that part which is due to the incandescent lamps. Upon repeated switching on also, it is unnecessary to wait for the mercury lamp to cool, since the filament lamps are always ready for action. In order to obtain a better blending of the two kinds of light it is necessary to divide the total amount of ordinary electric light necessary per mercury lamp over a number of small lamps. The proportions of the mixture can then be adapted to the needs of each case. When no particular requirements are made the proportions 1 : 1 will be satisfactory. *i.e.* a mixture consisting of equal quantities of the two kinds of light. In practice this can be attained for instance with one HP 300 or HP 500 and one or more electric lamps with a total consumption of 200 or 300 watts, respectively. If higher requirements are made of the colour rendering, the content of ordinary electric light will often have to be increased. Conversely, the percentage of ordinary electric light can be decreased when the colour rendering is not the primary requirement, but, for instance, visual acuity, or when the objects being observed are mainly white. If it is desired to suppress the violet light of the mercury lamp, which gives blue objects especially an unnatural appearance, it is best to replace the HP lamp by an HPL lamp, or to use a suitable yellow-green filter around the mercury lamp. So little light need be absorbed by the glass of the filter that the total efficiency of the lamp is scarcely affected by it. This is due to the fact that the violet radiation in the mercury light comprises less than 1 per cent of the light flux.

When blended light is used the total efficiency of the combined light sources will necessarily be lower than that of the mercury lamps. Nevertheless it is always higher than that of ordinary electric lamps alone, and it is strikingly better than the efficiency of the so-called daylight blue lamps which were formerly used almost exclusively for a correct colour rendering, and which consist of ordinary electric lamps in a blue glass bulb. While the latter gave good results, it was only at the expense of a very low efficiency, and therefore in some cases of an unpleasant rise in temperature of their surroundings.

It would be difficult to give a survey of all the cases in which mercury blended light can be successfully used. As an indication therefore a few typical applications are given in *table 2* with the most important practical data referring to those uses. These can be varied according to taste and circumstances.

⁶⁾ Philips techn. Rev. 4, 27, 1939.

Table 2. Blended light of mercury and incandescent lamps.

Application	Proportions of mixture lumen mercury light lumen incand. light	Remarks
Show windows		
flowers	1/2	for light colours and green: mercury lamp HPL
textiles	1/2	preferably with yellow-green filter
gold	1/1	
silver	2/1	
fancy goods	2/1	with yellow-green filter in some cases
bicycles, tools, stoves, etc. .	1/1	
Interior illumination		
general	1/1 - 1/1.5	indirect, if necessary
drafting rooms	1/1 - 1/1.5	indirect
offices	1/1 - 1/1.5	
exhibition halls	1/1 - 1/1.5	
printing offices:		
hand composing room . .	3/1	
rotating press	1/1	
colour printing	1/2	indirect, mercury lamp HPL
offset	1/1.5	
binder	2/1	
shops (textiles)	1/2	
Outdoor illumination		
streets.	2/1 - 1/1	

Blended-light lamp, type ML

In a number of cases the use of blended light can be considerably simplified by the application of the new blended-light lamp ML 500. This lamp, which, except for the inside-frosting of the bulb, does not differ in appearance from an ordinary 300 W electric lamp (fig. 1e) combines in itself a mercury discharge tube and a filament, which are connected in series and placed in a bulb filled with the mixture of argon and nitrogen which is ordinarily used for electric lamps. The filament, which furnishes half of the total light flux of the lamp, also serves as a stabilizer for the discharge, so that the separate series apparatus which would otherwise be necessary may be omitted.

Since not only the filament, but also the mercury discharge in the blended-light lamp functions under conditions which deviate from the usual ones, we shall discuss them briefly. Upon ignition the mercury discharge has at first an arc voltage of about 15 volts, so that the filament must take up the whole difference between this voltage and the mains voltage. When burning normally, on the other hand, the voltage to be taken up by the filament is considerably lower. The filament is therefore

heavily overloaded in the starting period, so much indeed that during the first minute after the lamp has been switched on it evaporates as much as during an hour of ordinary use. This periodic overloading of the filament while the discharge is starting results in the fact that the life of the blended-light lamp depends to a greater degree than is the case with most other light sources on the number of times it is switched on, or on the average length of burning after each time it is switched on. Furthermore it must be noted that the ever present fluctuations in the mains voltage are transmitted entirely to the filament, since the arc voltage of the mercury discharge tube is constant in normal use. The result is that the percentage of fluctuations for the filament, which takes up only a part of the mains voltage, will be considerably higher than that for the whole lamp. In connection with this it is absolutely essential that the blended-light lamp be used at the correct mains voltage.

As concerns the mercury-discharge tube, it here acts in series with the ohmic resistance of the filament, instead of with the inductive resistance of a choke coil. The lag of the current is thus eliminated which is due to the inductive resistance in series with the lamp, and the result is an increase in the "re-ignition voltage" in the following half cycle. If the current lags in phase behind the voltage, then at the moment when the current changes from the positive to the negative direction there is already a considerable negative voltage, so that the lamp can immediately re-ignite. If, however, current and voltage have the same phase, at the moment when the current direction changes the voltage is zero, and it is a fraction of the following half period before the voltage has reached the re-ignition value. In this short time, however, the ionization in the tube falls back so that the re-ignition voltage increases.

The filament as well as the gas-discharge tube therefore work under less favourable conditions than if they were connected separately to the mains, and the result is that the efficiency of the blended-light lamp is somewhat lower than that of a corresponding combination of incandescent lamps and mercury lamps. Compared with blended light obtained from a mercury lamp and one or more incandescent lamps, however, the blended-light lamp offers the advantage of requiring no series apparatus. Furthermore it is important that the blended-light lamp burns with full light intensity immediately after being switched on, since the overloaded filament gives slightly more light at the moment when it is switched on than filament and mercury dis-

charge together in the normal working state. A third advantage of the blended-light lamp is that the starting time of the mercury discharge, which is about 5 minutes with the HP lamps, could be reduced to about 1 minute, by allowing the heat development of the filament to serve for the evaporation of the mercury.

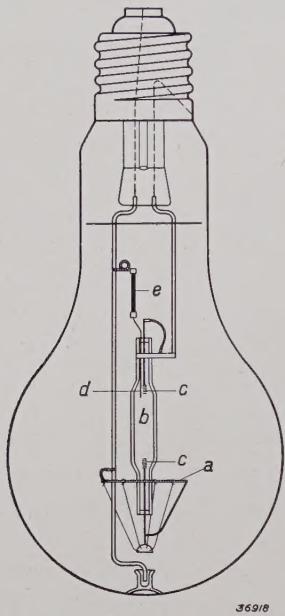


Fig. 6. Construction of the blended-light lamp ML 500. *a* filament in argon-nitrogen mixture, *b* mercury discharge tube, *c* main electrodes, *d* auxiliary electrode, *e* current-limiting resistance.

Like the other ordinary metallic vapour lamps, the blended-light lamp is intended for use on alternating current. The lifetime is calculated for an average of 2 000 hours, with the assumption that the average duration of burning after every switching on amounts to about 3 hours. The lamp is easily proof against mains voltage fluctuations of ± 5 per cent, while the mains voltage may fall to 170 volts without the lamp being extinguished. The relative positions of discharge tube and filament as shown in fig. 6 ensure a very good blending

Table 3. Properties of the blended-light lamp ML 500

	mercury discharge	filament	total
light flux	2 500 lm	2 500 lm	5 000 lm
power consumption	65 W	185 W	250 W
voltage	78 V	156 V	220 V
current		1.19 A	
starting time		1 min	
cooling time *)		1.2 min	

*) Within this interval of time after switching off it is impossible to re-ignite the lamp. The cooling time depends upon the circumstances.

of the light, so that the lamp exhibits a completely uniform appearance. The most important practical data of the lamp are collected in *table 3*.

The blended-light lamp ML 500 is still too new to have been able to conquer all the territory which it deserves. It may, however, be assumed that before long it will find its way into public lighting systems, while furthermore it should be considered for factories, offices, shops, warehouses, hospitals, churches, schools, theatres, halls and many other large covered spaces where larger lamp units are desired for the illumination.

Spectral data of the different kinds of light

In addition to the method of trying by practical experiments to find the most suitable composition of the light which is to be used for a given type of illumination, there is the block method ⁷⁾. According to the latter method the entire visible spectrum is divided into 8 adjacent regions (see *table 4*). Different lamps can then be compared with each other block by block with respect to the colour of the light. Two light sources will give practically the same colour gradation when the light fluxes in corresponding blocks are equal, or in a constant ratio to each other, notwithstanding the actual spectral distribution within the blocks themselves. The eye is, however, incapable of observing deviations from the colour equality defined in this way which are smaller than 10 to 25 per cent, or at least it is incapable of finding them disturbing. Sometimes a deviation in a given block can more or less compensate an opposite deviation in the adjacent block, especially when the colour difference between such blocks is not too great. On the other hand this tolerance will be found too great when two neighbouring blocks exhibit deviations in the same sense.

The kinds of light mentioned in *table 4* are all compared with average daylight which is set equal to 1 in each block. In order to approach average daylight as closely as possible a given kind of light must therefore be represented in each block by a number differing as little as possible from one. At first glance the table seems to give little hope. A comparison with universally familiar kinds of light, however, (direct sunlight or electric light) shows how far one may deviate from the requirement without obtaining an illumination which is unnatural or unpleasant in colour. This is true at least as long as the spectrum exhibits no great lack of balance. In an otherwise satisfactorily uniform

7) See the articles referred to in footnote ²⁾.

Table 4

Light flux of various sources of white light in certain blocks of the spectrum; values for daylight set equal to unity.

Blocks (boundaries in Å)	4 000	1	4 200	2	4 400	3	4 600	4	5 100	5	5 600	6	6 100	7	6 600	8	7 200
average daylight		1		1		1		1		1		1		1		1	
sunlight	0.64		0.69		0.70		0.83		0.96		1.06		1.16		1.30		
incandesc. electr. lamp ("Bi-arlita")	0.19		0.20		0.25		0.48		0.80		1.17		1.79		2.60		
"Daylight blue lamp"	0.35		0.36		0.44		0.68		0.97		1.09		1.18		1.40		
HP lamp	0.68		3.19		0.10		0.08		1.26		1.26		0.07		0.09		
ditto with yellow-green filter	0.37		2.34		0.06		0.08		1.37		1.14		0.10		0.09		
HPL lamp	0.29		0.88		0.16		0.14		1.14		1.31		0.41		0.41		
HP-blended light 2 : 1	0.52		2.19		0.15		0.21		1.11		1.23		0.65		0.91		
ditto 1 : 1 *)	0.44		1.69		0.17		0.28		1.03		1.22		0.93		1.33		
ditto 1 : 2	0.36		1.24		0.20		0.39		0.95		1.20		1.21		1.74		
HPL-blended light 1 : 2	0.24		0.42		0.19		0.37		0.91		1.21		1.33		1.86		
HP-blended light 1 : 2 with yellow-green filter around mercury lamp	0.26		0.92		0.19		0.35		0.99		1.16		1.22		1.74		

*) Blended-light lamp ML 500

spectrum, for example, one stronger spectral line, especially when it belongs to the blue-violet part of the spectrum, can make the light in question entirely unsuitable.

The spectrum of the HP lamp, which actually consists of lines (fig. 4), has a very irregular appearance. There can be no question of any analogy with average daylight. In the case of the HPL lamp this irregularity is much reduced, the excess of blue-violet is removed, but the red is not sufficiently reinforced. The HP lamp with yellow-green filter lies between the two preceding ones as concerns these colours which present the greatest difficulty for every mercury lamp.

The different kinds of mixed light form, according to the table, so many compromises between an optimum red rendering and the best possible blue rendering. According as the incandescent lamp light in the HP blended-light makes up a larger portion, the emphasis may be seen to shift from blue to red. The HPL blended light in the proportion indicated is found to possess a blue radiation relatively uni-

formly distributed over the first three blocks, but which is relatively too weak, so that the rendering of blue seems somewhat faded, while the red is rather reinforced and vitalized. The HP blended light with a yellow-green filter over the mercury lamp is especially remarkable for its excellent rendering of blue, and the red remains about as with the ordinary HP mixed light without filter in the same ratio.

This all agrees entirely with practical experience, where, according to the needs of every separate case, the emphasis may now be placed upon the red end of the spectrum, and then again on the blue end, thanks to the flexibility of the mixed light, so that a whole series of variants with respect to the composition is formed. It is therefore clear that with the help of blended light when used with judgment, not only with respect to the system chosen but also with respect to the proportions of the mixture, more satisfactory results can be obtained than with ordinary electric light alone.

AN ELECTRICAL PRESSURE INDICATOR FOR INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINES

by P. J. HAGENDOORN and M. F. REYNST.

531.787.9 : 621.43

In order to satisfy the severe requirements made of the indicator for measuring the pressure in modern internal combustion engines an electrical measuring apparatus (pressure indicator, type GM 3 154) has been developed which employs a cathode ray tube. A membrane is set into the wall of the cylinder, and together with an opposing electrode forms a condenser. The condenser is part of a bridge connection which is fed with a high frequency voltage. When the capacity of the membrane condenser varies due to the movement of the membrane, the high-frequency voltage taken from the bridge is modulated with these variations, which form a picture of the variations in pressure. After amplification and rectification the deflection voltage is obtained for the vertically deflecting plates of the cathode ray tube. The horizontal deflection can be made proportional to the time as well as to the displacement of the piston. The construction of the indicator on this principle is discussed and the most important details are explained.

The classical device for controlling the functioning of steam engines and internal combustion engines is the mechanical pressure indicator which traces the pressure in the cylinder as a function of the position of the piston. In this way a pressure volume diagram is obtained (fig. 1), from which conclusions may be drawn about the different processes taking place in the cylinder, and from which by planimetry the work done by the burning gas per revolution of the crank shaft (the "indicated power") can directly be determined.

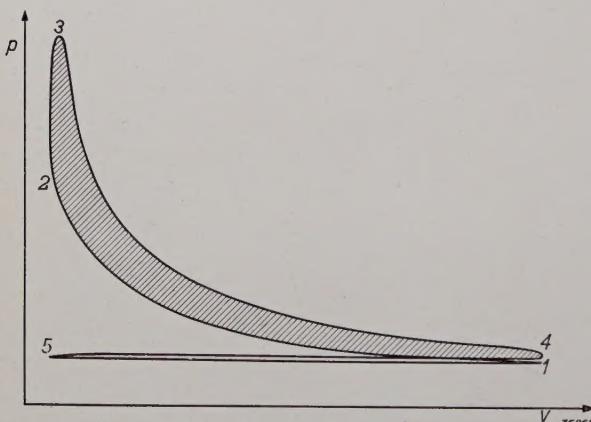


Fig. 1. Normal appearance of the pressure-volume diagram of a four-stroke internal combustion engine. Upon movement of the piston from 1 to 2 the air in the cylinder is compressed, at 2 the fuel (oil) is sprayed in, a moment later the mixture begins to burn and the pressure rises quickly to the peak value at 3. From 3 to 4 the gas expands. Upon the following stroke of the piston the burned gas is driven out (4 to 5) and fresh air sucked in (5 to 1), whereupon the process begins anew. The shaded area indicates the work done by the cylinder during two revolutions of the crank shaft.

The new engine constructions of the last 10 or 20 years, which work at higher speeds of revolution (up to 6 000 r.p.m. in aeroplane engines) and involve a heavier loading of the material than was formerly the case, on the one hand make an indication of the pressures prevailing more necessary, and on the

other hand they make heavier requirements of the indicating instrument. This instrument must be adapted to the higher speed of revolution mentioned, and furthermore a single diagram will often not be sufficient, but a continuous indication during operation will be desired, while at the same time the fine details of the diagram will be more important than formerly, such as those which correspond to the moment when the fuel is sprayed in and to the progress of the combustion of the gas mixture.

As has often been affirmed in this periodical, in the investigation of such mechanical phenomena where higher frequencies are concerned electrical methods of measurement offer great advantages over mechanical methods, since the cathode ray tube which can thereby be used as indicating instrument is practically free of time lag. A continuous indication can easily be obtained with this instrument, while at the same time the indicator can be situated at a central point where various phenomena — for instance the variation of the pressure in several cylinders — can be examined.

An indication of the pressure with the help of the cathode ray tube can be realized as follows. The pressure variations in the combustion chamber are converted into electrical voltage variations by means of a pressure indicator connected with the said chamber, which, as regards function, may be compared with a microphone. The voltage variations are amplified and fed to the set of plates for vertical deflection of a cathode ray tube. At the same time a voltage is applied to the plates for horizontal deflection which varies proportionally to the displacement of the piston. On the fluorescent screen of the tube the above-mentioned pressure-volume diagram appears. If, as is more usual in oscillography, the horizontal deflection voltage is allowed

to vary proportionally to the time, a pressure-time diagram is obtained which may sometimes also be useful.

The problems which are encountered in the realization of these principles, and the solutions which have been found in the pressure indicator (type GM 3154) developed by Philips, will be discussed in the following. The realization of this pressure indicator and its adaptation to the requirements of internal combustion engines would have been impossible without the stintless collaboration of the Laboratory at Delft of the *Bataafsche Petroleum Maatschappij* and of the N.V. *Werkspoor* at Amsterdam who placed there experimental plant at our disposal and contributed to these experiments by word and deed.

Principle of the arrangement

The pressure recorder

In the pressure recorder an elastic deformation of some kind of body is caused by the variation in pressure. This deformation can give rise to an electrical voltage variation in various ways as in the different ordinary microphones¹⁾, namely by the piezo-electric effect (crystal microphone), by a change in resistance (carbon microphone), by a change in capacity (condenser microphone) or by an electrodynamic or electromagnetic method (ribbon microphone). If it is required that the relation between voltage and change in pressure shall be independent of the frequency over a long range, only the first three methods mentioned can be considered, as is explained in the article already referred to¹⁾, with the additional condition that the (lowest) characteristic frequency of the body upon which the varying pressure acts must lie sufficiently far above the frequency range with which we are concerned. If we assume a maximum velocity of 9 000 r.p.m. (this has already been employed in test models of engines), then the fundamental frequency of the diagram to be recorded (with a two-stroke engine) is 150 c/s. In order to reproduce all the details of the diagram satisfactorily, such as the steepest pressure peaks, detonation vibrations, etc., the 20th harmonic must still show no appreciable change in amplitude and phase. It is therefore desirable²⁾ that the resonance frequency of the recorder should be at least 8 times as high, i.e. at about 25 000 c/s.

In order to obtain satisfactory sensitivity with

such a high characteristic frequency it is important to use for the pressure recorder a vibrating system with as small a mass as possible. In this respect the condenser microphone is particularly suitable: the vibrating mass here consists only of a thin membrane which is bent more or less by the pressure variations. Together with a rigid counter electrode in the shape of a plate, the membrane forms a condenser whose capacity varies with the movement of the membrane. The Philips indicator is constructed on this principle. Fig. 2 shows diagrammatically how the membrane condenser can be built into the wall of the engine cylinder. For the sake of simplicity in fastening it, the membrane is earthed and the counter electrode insulated.

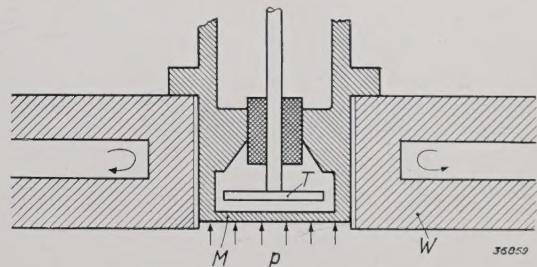


Fig. 2. The membrane *M* which is fixed into the wall *W* of the cylinder and which is moved more or less by the pressure *p* in the cylinder, forms, together with the counter electrode *T*, a condenser of variable capacity.

The conversion of the capacity variations into voltage variations

In the case of the condenser microphone the membrane condenser, which is charged by a direct current source, is included directly in the grid circuit of an amplifier valve. When the charge is kept constant the changes in capacity cause changes in the grid voltage which are then further amplified. For the pressure recorder, however, this connection, although simple in principle, cannot be considered. In this case it is also necessary to be able to measure unchanging pressures as well (this is especially important for the calibration), so that it would become necessary to use a D.C. amplifier. In many respects it is more difficult to use such an amplifier. Moreover very severe requirements which can hardly be satisfied are made of the insulation of the connection between the condenser and the grid of the first amplifier valve. In order to avoid these difficulties a quite different principle is applied in the Philips pressure indicator. The membrane condenser is included in a bridge circuit to which a high-frequency A.C. voltage is applied, see fig. 3. When the bridge is in equilibrium, there is no voltage between the points *c-d*. When the equilibrium is disturbed by a variation in capacity ΔC of the membrane condenser, a high-frequency A.C. voltage

¹⁾ J. de Boer, Microphones, Philips techn. Rev. 5, 140, 1940.

²⁾ See for example K. J. de Juhasz and J. Geiger, Der Indikator, Springer, Berlin 1938, p. 240.

acts between $c-d$, whose amplitude is proportional to ΔC when the variations are not too great. In this way a high-frequency voltage (carrier wave) is

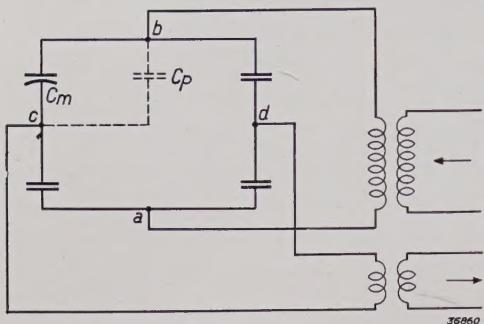


Fig. 3. The membrane condenser C_m is included in a bridge connection. At $a-b$ (via a cable and matching transformer) a high-frequency A.C. voltage is fed to the bridge. If the bridge is balanced for a given value of C_m , then upon a variation ΔC of the latter a high-frequency voltage with an amplitude approximately proportional to ΔC will act across the points $c-d$. This "modulated carrier wave" is taken off by a cable with matching transformer.

obtained which is modulated with the pressure changes to be recorded. From this, after amplification and rectification, the desired deflection voltage for the vertical deflection of the cathode ray is obtained.

In fig. 4 the main features of the whole circuit are given. The oscillator for the excitation of the carrier wave is built into a cabinet together with the amplifier, the cathode ray tube and several auxiliary apparatus, the bridge connections on the other hand are placed in the immediate neighbourhood of the membrane condenser for reasons which will be discussed later. The high-frequency voltage is applied to the bridge, or taken from it, with a cable which may have a length of for instance 10 m, or in some cases 50 m, in order to ensure the necessary freedom in setting up the indicating instrument.

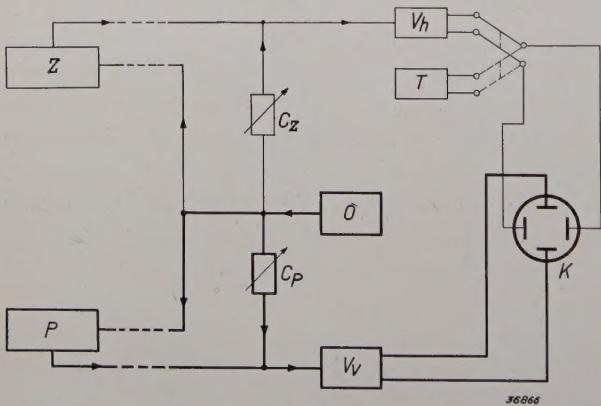


Fig. 4. Main features of the whole connection. O oscillator, P pressure indicator, V_h amplifier for the vertical deflection voltage, K cathode ray tube, Z piston-stroke indicator, T time-base generator, V_v amplifier for the horizontal deflection voltage, C_p and C_z compensation arrangements discussed in the following.

As carrier-wave frequency 450 c/s is chosen. This value is so low that the damping of the carrier wave in the cable can be made small enough to be neglected, and so high that the construction of an amplifier with the desired band width (namely twice the maximum modulation frequency of the carrier wave, *i.e.* the highest frequency occurring in the oscillogram) still offers no difficulties.

Time base and piston-stroke base

A time-axis generator is included in the apparatus similar to that which is used in the cathode ray oscilloscope recently described in this periodical³⁾. With the sawtooth voltage given by this generator the cathode ray is given the necessary horizontal deflection to trace a pressure-time diagram. For tracing a pressure-volume diagram, however, the horizontal deviation of the fluorescent spot must be proportional at every moment to the displacement of the piston with respect to its position at the "dead point" near the top of the cylinder. The deflection voltage which is necessary for this is obtained by a "piston-stroke indicator" which functions as follows. A revolving cylinder of the shape shown in fig. 5 is coupled to the crank

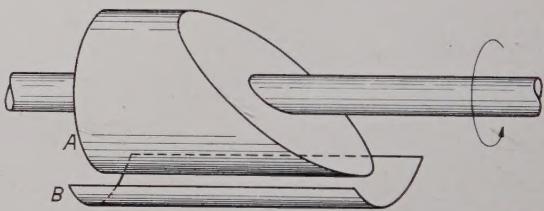


Fig. 5. Principle of the piston-stroke recorder. The cylinder A which is cut off in a certain way and coupled with the crank shaft, forms, together with the fixed counter electrode B , a condenser whose capacity varies as A rotates with the displacement of the piston in the cylinder of the engine.

shaft of the engine. Together with a fixed plate this cylinder forms a condenser whose capacity varies as the cylinder turns. By choosing a suitable shape for the cylinder the capacity of the cylinder condenser at every moment can be made proportional to the displacement of the piston. The cylinder condenser is included in a bridge connection in the same way as the membrane condenser of the pressure indicator, and the bridge is fed *via* a cable with the same high-frequency voltage. The output of the bridge is again amplified and rectified and applied to the horizontal deflection plates of the cathode ray tube. The piston-stroke indicator thus acts in exactly the same way as the pressure indicator itself (see also the diagram fig. 4).

³⁾ A cathode ray oscilloscope for use in tool making, Philips techn. Rev. 5, 277, 1940.

Construction of the pressure indicator

Having given a general idea in the foregoing of the construction of the apparatus, we shall now give some details of the connections and of the construction of the components. Especially the pressure indicator deserves attention. It is a component which must satisfy rigid requirements in three respects: electrically, mechanically, and thermally. In the first place it may be noted that the capacity in the branch *bc* of the bridge (fig. 3) is composed of that of the membrane condenser C_m and the capacity C_p , in parallel with it and independent of the pressure, between the counter electrode plus connections and earth. Since C_p may vary somewhat due to different influences, especially temperature changes, it is necessary to keep C_p as small as possible. To this end the connection is made as short as possible, *i.e.* the whole bridge is placed as close as possible to the membrane condenser. Nevertheless there still remains a considerable stray capacity of the enclosed counter electrode (fig. 2), so that C_p could not be made smaller than about $18 \mu\mu\text{F}$. In order to limit the influence of variations in C_p one must therefore try to make the capacity C_m which changes with the pressure as large as possible by making the air gap between membrane and counter electrode very small. In doing this, however, care must be taken that no short circuit can occur during use between the membrane and the counter electrode. Short circuiting was found to be promoted especially by the freeing of particles of material from the membrane — a phenomenon which need cause no surprise when it is remembered that the membrane may become red hot due to contact with the hot gases in the cylinder, and that it continually undergoes pressure shocks of up to 100 atmospheres. By careful ageing of the membrane, however, this phenomenon could be rendered harmless to such an extent that the air gap could be reduced to 0.2 mm. Since the area of the surface of the membrane was determined by the consideration that the pressure indicator should be able to be fastened into the wall of the cylinder in the same way as a sparking plug, the capacity of the membrane condenser was approximately determined at the same time. The value obtained is $C_m \approx 1.5 \mu\mu\text{F}$.

The relatively small values of C_m compared with that of the stray capacity C_p make it necessary to work with as large as possible capacity variations of the membrane condenser. The membrane is therefore so constructed that at the maximum pressure the displacement f at the centre is almost equal to the width of the air gap, namely 0.18 mm.

The tensile stresses hereby occurring in the membrane may not become too large. The following general relation holds for the maximum tensile stress δ_{\max} in a circular membrane fastened around its circumference:

$$\sigma_{\max} = K \frac{E}{c} f \nu_1 \dots \dots \quad (1)$$

Here ν_1 is the lowest resonance frequency of the membrane, c the velocity of sound in the material of the membrane, E its modulus of elasticity and K a constant which depends only upon the rigidity with which the membrane is clamped⁴⁾. In our case the constant K is approximately 4.5. When the values of c and E for steel: $c = 5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm/s}$, $E = 20 \times 10^5 \text{ kg/cm}^2$, are filled in, and for ν_1 the value 25 000 c/s which is desired according to the above, then for $f = 0.18 \text{ mm}$ one arrives at a maximum tensile stress $\delta_{\max} = 8 000 \text{ kg/cm}^2$.

With an ordinary good quality of steel this value is permissible. In our case, however, the unusual thermal load on the membrane had still to be taken into account. During combustion in the cylinder peak temperatures of 1600°C occur, while the average working temperature of the membrane may amount to about 550°C . With ordinary kinds of steel the permissible value of δ_{\max} thereby decreases very considerably, to only $2 000 \text{ kg/cm}^2$, for example. In order to be able to obtain the desired values of f and ν_1 and at the same time to ensure reliability in operation and sufficient constancy of the properties of the membrane, a specially tough and heat-resistant kind of steel was used and its yield value was further raised as much as possible by extra hardening.

In order to protect the membrane against becoming too hot, *i.e.* to limit the average temperature to the value of 550°C already mentioned, a perforated cap is placed in front of it, see fig. 6. This helps to conduct the heat of the gases to the cooled walls of the cylinder, and at the same time supports the whole pressure indicator. The cap has an ex-

⁴⁾ If p is the excess pressure, r the radius of the membrane and δ its thickness, then

$$f = C_1 \frac{r^4}{\delta^3} \frac{p}{E}, \quad \sigma_{\max} = C_2 \frac{r^2}{\delta^2} p, \quad \nu_1 = C_3 \frac{\delta}{r^2} c,$$

where C_1 , C_2 , C_3 are constants, which depend upon the rigidity of the fastening of the membrane. When the two last equations are divided by each other and the pressure p eliminated, the dimensions r and δ are also found to disappear from the resulting equation, and equation (1) is obtained where C_2/C_1C_3 is set equal to K . A similar relation is also found for other vibrating systems. This has already been pointed out in this periodical in connection with a discussion of the sound cutter of the Philips-Miller system: Philips techn. Rev. 1, 136, 1936.

ternal screw thread like a sparking plug and is screwed into the wall of the cylinder. This construction has the advantage that the material in the neighbourhood of the point where the membrane is clamped is kept free of forces which occur during the screwing in (actually the membrane is not clamped but simply forms the bottom of the cylinder *B*). These forces would otherwise cause a deformation and in that way be able to change the sensitivity of the pressure indicator (*i.e.* its calibration).

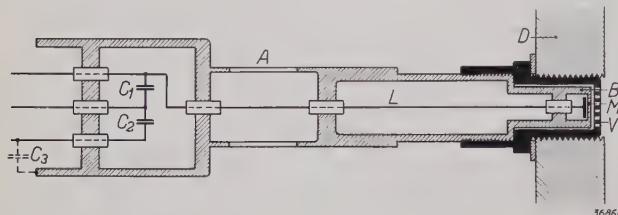


Fig. 6. Construction of the pressure indicator. The membrane *M* forms the bottom of a cylinder *B*. *V* perforated cap, *D* cylinder wall, *L* lead of the counter electrode, *C*₁, *C*₂, *C*₃ condensers of the bridge.

In the cross section sketch fig. 6 the condensers of the bridge may also be seen which is situated in the immediate neighbourhood of the membrane condenser. As already stated, it is by means of this precaution that the value of the stray capacity *C_p*, and with it the influence of its variations are kept small. On the other hand, however, this precaution introduced the danger that the impedances of the other bridge elements would vary much due to the vibrations and the transmission of heat from the engine cylinder, so that it would be a case of out of the frying pan into the fire. This could be avoided by a very compact and strong construction of the bridge with high-frequency porcelain used in most places for insulation, and by a heat insulating separation between the membrane condenser and the bridge. The section *A* which supports the bridge is provided with holes so that only a small cross section is available for heat conduction and the air can flow freely through it, see fig. 7. Furthermore the whole rear section as well as the

connection *L* is made of chrome-iron which is a poor heat conductor. In this way the bridge portion of the pressure indicator was kept at a temperature no higher than 50° C without a special water-cooling system being needed.

Compensation arrangement

The bridge can be brought out of equilibrium by an increase as well as by a decrease in the capacity of the membrane condenser. In both cases the amplitude of the high-frequency output voltage of the bridge will increase from zero to a certain value, and therefore a corresponding deviation of the fluorescent spot will appear on the screen of the cathode ray tube. This is made clear in fig. 8a. In order to obtain a linear relation between the pressure and the deviation on the screen, the bridge must be brought into equilibrium for such a low (or high) capacity *C₀* that it never passes this equilibrium at any capacity variation occurring (*i.e.* at any pressure occurring).

Now, however, the following complication appears. The amplifier for the vertical deflection of the cathode ray can receive a high-frequency input voltage due to other causes besides capacity variations of the membrane condenser. In the first place the cables and transformers for leading in and leading out the high-frequency voltage of the bridge are always capacitively and inductively coupled to a certain extent, notwithstanding careful mutual shielding; the voltage thereby induced reaches the amplifier entirely outside of the bridge. The balance of the bridge, which requires not only a regulation of the effective capacities, but also of the loss resistances of the four condensers, is always more or less disturbed due to the fact that a drift in the value of the loss resistances caused by temperature influences can never entirely be avoided. This again results in a certain initial voltage at the input of the amplifier.

The different contributions to the total input voltage of the amplifier must be added vectorially since they may differ in phase. The magnitude of the resultant voltage vector determines the deviation of the fluorescent spot obtained. Suppose for instance that the initial voltage *E*₁ (made up of different contributions) is shifted 90° in phase with respect to those voltages *ΔE* which occur due to the pressure variations. The magnitude of the resultant vector *E*, and therefore also the deviation *y* observed on the screen, then varies with the pressure according to fig. 8b; in the region of low pressures the diagram is somewhat compressed. An even greater distortion occurs when the vector

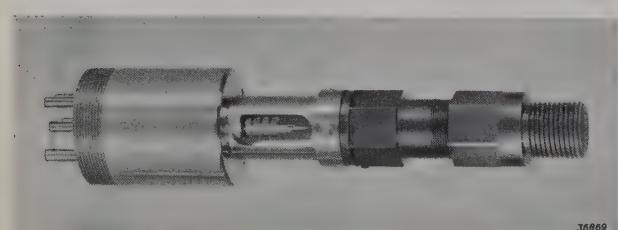


Fig. 7. Photograph of the pressure indicator. On the right the cap with sparking plug screw thread which is screwed into the wall of the cylinder. On the left the cable to the indicating instrument is connected and fastened.

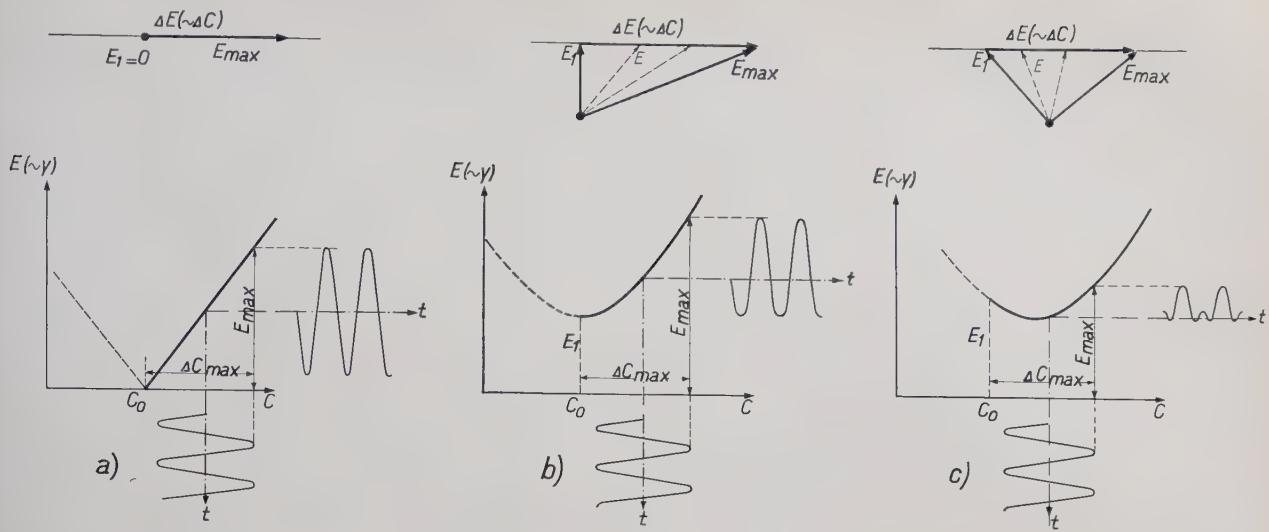


Fig. 8. Relation between the deviation γ on the screen, which is proportional to the input voltage E of the amplifier, and the capacity C of the membrane condenser.

- No undesired initial voltage E_1 at the input of the amplifier. At C_0 the bridge is in equilibrium. C_0 must lie outside the region in which C varies with the pressure prevailing. Then γ is a faithful representation of C (thus of the pressure) as shown in the oscilloscope constructed for a sinusoidal variation of C .
- Undesired initial voltage E_1 , shifted 90° in phase with respect to the voltage ΔE which is obtained by the capacity variations ΔC . γ is proportional to the magnitude of the resultant vector E . The oscilloscope is flattened at the low-pressure values.
- Arbitrary initial voltage E_1 . The relation between γ and C is now no longer singular throughout the whole range of variations. In the oscilloscope a reversing of the troughs as well as flattening may occur.

of the initial voltage E_1 has a direction like that indicated in fig. 8c. The magnitude of the resultant vector E then varies according to the curve drawn, the relation between deviation and pressure is no longer singular in the whole range of pressures; with a sinusoidally varying pressure the troughs are reversed in the oscilloscope (see the figure).

In order to avoid these deformations it is necessary to make the initial voltage E_1 at the input of the amplifier disappear. This has been made possible in a very simple way in the case of the indication here described: part of the oscillator voltage is fed directly to the amplifier, while phase and amplitude of this voltage are so adjusted that the initial voltage E_1 is exactly compensated.

Since the phase of the initial voltage E_1 may vary between 0 and 360° , the phase of the compensation voltage must also be able to be varied within these limits. The connections shown in fig. 9a are used for this purpose. They consist chiefly of two similar resistance bridges which are fed from the oscillator. The two supply voltages (E_0) differ 90° in phase. By moving contact a the voltage between c and earth can be regulated between $+E_0/2$ and $-E_0/2$. The same is true upon moving g ; for the voltage between e and earth which differs by 90° . The vector of the resulting voltage between $c-e$, which is used for the compensation, can therefore take on any position within the square drawn in fig. 9b, i.e.

the compensation voltage can be varied 360° in phase and at least between 0 and $E_0/2$ in amplitude.

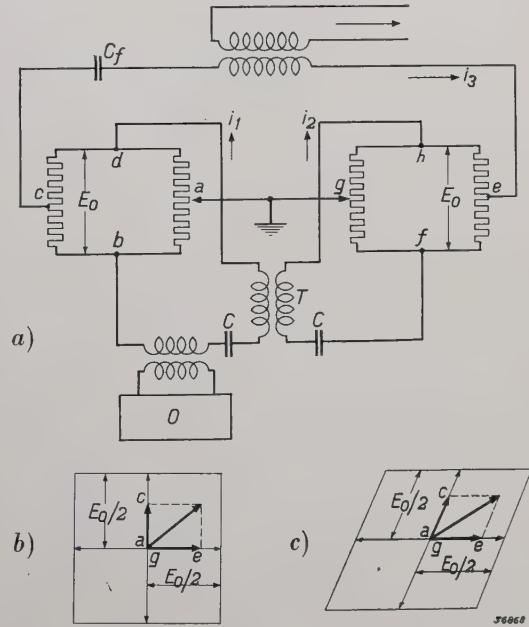


Fig. 9. Connections (a) consisting of two bridges $a-b-c-d$ and $e-f-g-h$ for obtaining the compensation voltage. By means of a condenser C in each bridge, current and voltage are brought into phase. Since the secondary voltage of the transformer T is always shifted 90° in phase with respect to the primary current, i_1 and i_2 are therefore shifted 90° in phase. The compensation voltage is taken off between c and e , and can be varied 360° in phase by moving the contacts a and g . This is shown in the vector diagram: b) for the case where the currents i_1 and i_2 differ exactly 90° in phase; c) for the case where this condition is not satisfied.

If an appreciable current i_3 is taken off between $c-e$, the phase relation between the currents i_1 and i_2 in the two bridges changes; instead of fig. 9b a vector diagram like fig. 9c, for instance, is obtained. The range of variation of the amplitude has here become smaller for some phase angles. This effect is found to reach a minimum at a certain phase relation between the current taken off and the voltage. This phase relation is realized by means of the condenser C_f .

Compensation takes place practically as follows. The initial voltage on the amplifier causes a certain initial deviation of the fluorescent spot. The contact a is now moved until this deviation is a minimum. The same is now repeated with contact g . In general, however, the deviation cannot be reduced to zero in this way, but can be again reduced by a further moving of a , etc. Further consideration shows that this alternate regulation of a and g converges rapidly.

In order to avoid all deformation the compensation voltage must be adjusted to an accuracy of several per mille. To attain this great accuracy of adjustment the potentiometers $b-a-d$ and $f-g-h$ (fig. 9a) are so constructed that in order to cover the region of regulation seven complete turns of the knob for that purpose are required.

The amplifier

If it is necessary to be able to determine the indicated cylinder power directly by planimetry from the pressure-volume diagram obtained, there must be a linear relation between the deviation on the screen and the cylinder pressure. Now without special measures the relation between these two quantities is by no means linear. The deviation on the screen when a normal linear amplifier is used is indeed proportional to the capacity variation of the membrane condenser, this capacity variation is not, however, proportional to the pressure variation. Proportionality would only exist if the movements of the membrane were small compared with the width of the air gap — a condition which, according to the description given of the pressure indicator, is far from satisfied. The relation between the capacity of the membrane condenser and the pressure is shown in fig. 10 for the range of variations for practical use.

In order nevertheless to obtain a linear relation between the deviation on the screen and the pressure it is obvious that an ordinary linear amplifier

should not be used, but the amplification should be made to decrease with increasing amplitude of the input voltage (increasing capacity variation), in such a way that the deviation from linear variation shown in fig. 10 is just corrected. For this purpose, as in the case of automatic volume control in radio receiving sets⁶⁾, part of the rectified output voltage of the amplifier is fed back to the grids of the amplifier valves (the amplifier contains two stages), so that the operating point on the characteristic, and at the same time the slope of the valves, is changed according to the magnitude of the input voltage. While without this amplification regulation the relation between the deviation on the screen and the pressure would have the shape of the full line curve of fig. 10, by means of the regulation the broken-line curve in the same figure is obtained. The remaining deviation from linearity is slight, the difference amounts to about 2 per cent of the maximum pressure at the middle of the whole pressure range, while without regulation it amounts from 10 to 15 per cent.

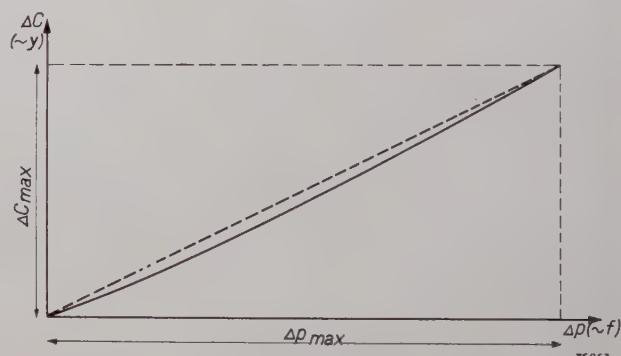


Fig. 10. Relation between the capacity C of the membrane condenser and the pressure p on the membrane. When a linear amplifier is used this is also the relation between the deviation y on the screen and the pressure. By automatic regulation of the amplification the broken-line curve is obtained in its place.

Instead of "the whole pressure range" we might better speak of the variation range of the movement of the membrane. For different applications of the pressure indicator the pressure range will be very different; for these applications a series of pressure indicators have been developed which differ chiefly only in the thickness of the membrane, and in which, as a result, the maximum movement of the membrane (0.18 mm) occurs at different pressures, for instance at 30, 50, 100 atmospheres, etc. The variation of the capacity as a function of the movement is almost independent of the thickness of the

⁵⁾ As a first, rough approximation we may consider the membrane condenser as consisting of two parallel plane plates whose separation diminishes with increasing pressure. With a small separation a given decrease in that distance will obviously cause a greater increase in capacity than with a large separation, which leads to the curvature of the full line in fig. 10.

⁶⁾ A similar linearity correction has recently been described in this periodical for a density meter for X-ray films: Philips techn. Rev. 5, 333, 1940.

membrane, so that for all pressure indicators the same linearity correction can be used.

Although it is best always to use the pressure indicator which is adapted to the measuring range⁷⁾, it may happen that the pressure varies less and that therefore the diagram only occupies a part of the screen of the cathode ray tube. In that case, in order to take advantage of the whole area of the screen, the sensitivity of the amplifier should be increased, which can be done by changing the bias of the control grid (the operating point) of the first amplifier valve with a potentiometer. Since when this is done one works with smaller capacity variations of the membrane condenser, and therefore with a smaller part of the full-line curve of fig. 10 which more nearly approaches linearity, the regulation range of the linearity correction must also be decreased, *i.e.* only a smaller fraction of the rectified output voltage must be fed back. This reduction is obtained by changing the fraction mentioned with a potentiometer which is coupled mechanically with the potentiometer for the regulation of the sensitivity.

According to fig. 8a the bridge is so balanced that the deflection voltage of the amplifier obtained becomes equal to zero for the smallest pressure occurring. In order to use the whole area of the screen, the fluorescent spot must be at the bottom of the screen at this pressure, it must therefore have a certain initial deviation. This is obtained by means of the output connections of the amplifier shown in fig. 11. The rectified output voltage, as

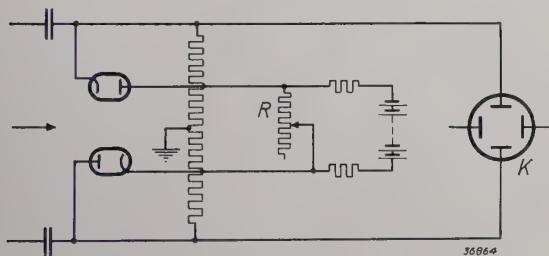


Fig. 11. Output connections (diagrammatic) of the amplifier for the vertical deflection voltage. The voltage rectified by the two diodes is fed in push-pull connection to the deflection plates of the cathode ray tube *K*, while by the likewise balanced bias on the resistance *R* an initial deviation can be given to the fluorescent spot.

well as the constant extra voltage for the initial deviation, is applied to the deflection plates of the cathode ray tube in push-pull connection; this is necessary in order to avoid distortion of the

oscillogram on the screen⁸⁾. By short circuiting the resistance *R* more or less the magnitude of the initial deflection can be further varied.

The band width of the amplifier which is tuned to the oscillator frequency of 450 c/s was fixed at 30 000 c/s. In the pressure diagrams of internal combustion engines it is unnecessary, as was explained at the beginning, to count on frequencies higher than 3 000 c/s, so that a band width of 6 000 c/s would be sufficient. Because of the higher value chosen, however, the pressure indicator can also be used for pressure measurements in quite different cases, namely for measuring fluid pressures in pressure lines of turbines, of hydraulic presses, etc. where considerably steeper pressure wave fronts (higher frequencies) occur than in engines cylinders.

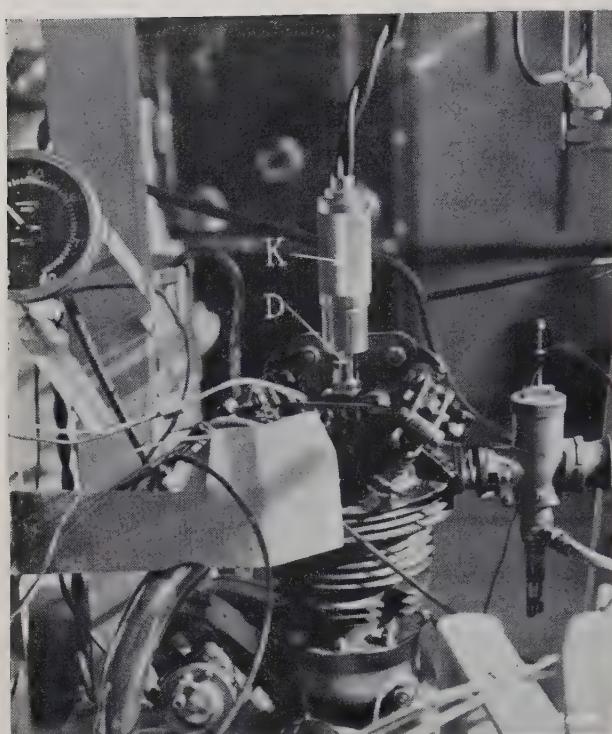
Calibration and application of the indicator

It has already been pointed out that thanks to the carrier-wave principle chosen, static pressures can also be measured. The calibration is thus very simple: the pressure indicator is connected for instance to a cylinder with compressed gas whose pressure is regulated with a valve and read with an ordinary manometer. The modulus of elasticity of the material of the membrane is found to be practically independent of the temperature so that the calibration can be carried out with the membrane cold. The calibration is of course valid only for a given adjustment of the sensitivity of the amplifier. Furthermore it is valid only for a given amplitude of the carrier wave with which the bridge of the pressure indicator is fed. It is this amplitude which determines the proportionality factor between the input voltage of the amplifier and the capacity variation of the membrane condenser. In order to prevent changes in the carrier-wave amplitude which might occur due to voltage fluctuations of the mains from which the oscillator is fed, the feeding voltage of the latter is stabilized with neon lamps. At the same time this precaution serves to keep the carrier-wave frequency constant. If this frequency should change, the phase relation between the various voltage components at the input of the amplifier would change, and this would upset the compensation of the undesired initial voltage. For the rest, thanks to the carrier-wave principle, the whole arrangement is to a high degree insensitive to disturbances by induction from electric mains and the like.

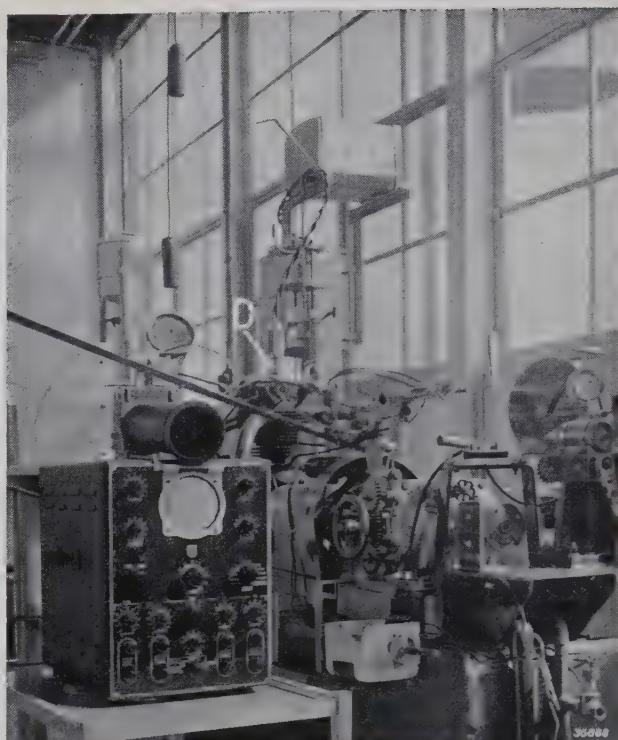
In a coming article in this periodical the appli-

⁷⁾ When this is done the sensitivity of the amplifier need only be small. The greater the sensitivity, the greater the displacement of the zero line obtained on the screen upon a drift in the bridge connections (fig. 8b and c).

⁸⁾ This is for instance explained in Philips techn. Rev. 4, 198, 1939.



a



b

Fig. 12. The pressure indicator GM 3 154 in operation. a) The pressure indicator *D* shown on the engine cylinder; *K* is the connecting piece for the 10 m cable connecting the pressure recorder to the indicating instrument. The latter may be seen in the left foreground of b).

cation of the apparatus for the investigation and control of internal combustion engines will be discussed in detail. We shall here merely draw attention to another possibility of application, namely the investigation of mechanical vibrations. If the membrane of the pressure indicator is omitted and the rigidly fixed counter electrode is placed opposite a vibrating body, the capacity between the electrode and earth varies, and the vibration becomes visible on the screen of the cathode ray tube. By giving the counter electrode suitable dimensions vibrations with amplitudes of several μ up to several cm can be measured. In the control of internal combustion engines also this possibility is important, namely for recording the so-called needle-stroke diagram.

Fig. 12 shows the pressure indicator in use. In

order to be able to compare various phenomena, for instance the variation in pressure in different cylinders, the apparatus is so arranged that three, different pressure (or vibration) recorders can be connected at the same time with cables. By a simple switching operation the three different diagrams can be made to appear on the screen in rapid succession. Since the required compensation voltage for the three cables plus pressure indicators will in general differ, each of the three connections is provided with its own compensation arrangement as in fig. 9a. A fourth compensation set is necessary for the amplifier of the horizontal deflection voltage (piston-stroke base). In fig. 12b may be seen the four pairs of regulation knobs of the compensation arrangements, placed at bottom of the panel of the cabinet.

A VARIABLE AMPLIFIER VALVE WITH DOUBLE CATHODE CONNECTION SUITABLE FOR METRE WAVES

by M. J. O. STRUTT and A. van der ZIEL.

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A great disadvantage of ordinary amplifier valves in the amplification of very high frequencies is the damping of the oscillator circuit connected with the control grid, due to the coupling between control grid circuit and anode circuit *via* the self-induction of the cathode connection. This disadvantage can be avoided by providing the cathode with two connections, which belong respectively to the control grid circuit and the anode circuit. By using these two connections of the cathode in a suitable manner numerous possibilities of connection occur so that it is possible to eliminate the damping of control grid circuit and anode circuit simultaneously, and at the same time to influence the reactance in a favourable manner. In this article a variable amplifier valve with a double cathode connection (EF 51) is described, which for wave lengths not shorter than 1.5 m gives approximately as satisfactory results as the (non-variable) push-pull amplifier valve EFF 50, and considerably better results than the existing button pentodes.

For the satisfactory performance of electronic valves which are intended for the amplification of very short waves it is essential that particularly the noise resistance, the input damping and the output damping should be low, while at the same time a steep slope must be retained. A steep slope, however, as explained previously in this periodical¹⁾, causes great damping of the input circuit due to the self-induction of the cathode connection. In the second article referred to, a valve was described in which this objection is met by the application of the push-pull principle. This valve, type EFF 50, can be used successfully for the amplification of signals with frequencies up to 6×10^8 c/s (wave length 50 cm), at which frequency an amplification by a factor 8 can still be obtained.

The principle upon which the push-pull amplifier valve is based consists in the fact that two systems which work in exactly opposite phase are connected to a common cathode connection. Since the sum of the high-frequency currents in the two systems is equal to zero, no high-frequency current flows through this cathode connection, and its self-induction can therefore have no damping effect on the input circuit.

The result obtained in this way answered fully to the expectations. In practice, however, it is not always possible to use a push-pull valve. It therefore became necessary to find out whether the aim in view — combatting the damping effect of the cathode connection — could not be attained by some other method as well.

A constructively simple principle, which offers many possibilities of influencing the input damping,

the output damping and in addition the reactance in a favourable way, consists in the use of a double cathode connection. The anode current which returns to the cathode *via* one of the cathode connections then no longer needs choose a path which comprises part of the input circuit which is connected to the other cathode connection between grid and cathode (see fig. 1b).

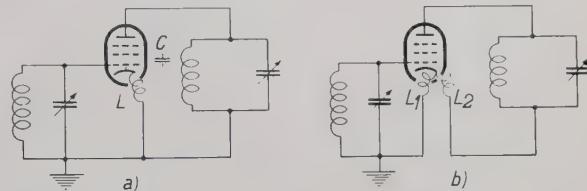


Fig. 1. Connections of a valve with single cathode connection (a) and of a valve with double cathode connection (b) in a stage for high-frequency amplification. Only the impedances important for high-frequency currents are given. In case a the self-induction L forms part of the input circuit and part of the output circuit at the same time, so that a back coupling occurs which is lacking in case b.

In order to show that by this means the damping effect of the anode current on the control grid circuit actually does disappear, we shall briefly review the theory of the input damping due to the self-induction of the cathode connection. If v is the A.C. voltage on the input circuit of fig. 1a and i_a the anode A.C., then the A.C. voltage between control grid and cathode is approximately:

$$v_g = v - j\omega L i_a$$

and therefore the A.C., which will flow to the control grid due to the presence of the grid-cathode capacity C , amounts to

$$i_g = j\omega C v_g = j\omega C v + \omega^2 L C i_a$$

In the first approximation $i_a = S v$ where S is the slope of the valve, and therefore

¹⁾ M. J. O. Strutt and A. van der Ziel, The behaviour of amplifier valves at very high frequencies, Philips techn. Rev. 3, 103, 1938; A new push-pull amplifier valve for decimetre waves, Philips techn. Rev. 5, 172, 1940.

$$i_g = (j\omega C + \omega^2 LCS) v.$$

The second term in parentheses represents a current component which is in phase with the voltage, so that energy is taken from the input circuit. The equivalent input parallel resistance is

$$R_L = 1/\omega^2 LCS \dots \dots \dots \quad (1)$$

(The subscript L indicates that the self-induction of the cathode connection is the cause of the damping).

In the connections with two cathode connections given in fig. 1b the anode current has no effect on the voltage between control grid and cathode, so that the above-discussed damping effect is entirely absent.

We need not stop at this result, however, but by the addition of suitable circuit elements we may even obtain negative damping of the input circuit, as will be explained in the following. After having shown further that the output damping and the reactance can also be favourably affected by suitable use of two cathode connections, we shall describe the construction of a valve, namely the high-frequency amplifier valve EF 51 which, for waves no shorter than 1.5 m, possesses properties which are much more favourable than those of the existing button pentodes and only slightly less satisfactory than those of the push-pull amplifier valve EFF 50. Compared with the push-pull amplifier valve the new high-frequency valve has the advantage that it offers the possibility of varying the amplification by varying the slope of the valve.

The influence of two cathode connections on the input damping

For the sake of simplicity of expression in the following we shall define several of the terms to be used. By the first cathode connection we mean the cathode connection which belongs to the input circuit, while the second cathode connection belongs to the output circuit. The end of the cathode connection which extends outside the valve will be called the lower end; the upper end is thus connected to the cathode.

In order to profit by the double cathode connection for the purpose of decreasing the damping of the input circuit, another condenser C_1 must be added to the circuit elements given in fig. 1b between the lower end of the second cathode connection and the control grid. In this way the diagram of fig. 2 is obtained. It is immediately clear that the A.C. voltage which occurs due to the

self-induction of the second cathode connection, via the condenser C_1 will now lead to a grid A.C., as was the case in the ordinary connections according to fig. 1a. Since the condenser C_1 is connected to the lower end of L_2 , however, this A.C. is opposite in phase to that which occurred in the case of fig. 1a, so that instead of a damping a negative damping is obtained.

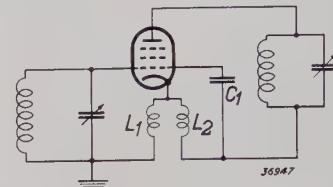


Fig. 2. Connection to two cathode connections and an auxiliary condenser C_1 for the purpose of eliminating the damping of the input circuit.

By analogy with equation (1) we obtain as value of the equivalent parallel resistance by approximation:

$$R_{L2} = -1/\omega^2 L_2 C_1 S \dots \dots \dots \quad (2)$$

This negative damping can be used for instance to decrease, or even entirely to eliminate the damping of the input circuit which occurs as a result of the finite transit time of the electrons between cathode and control grid²⁾. This damping of the transit time, in the case of the valve EF 51 discussed later, corresponds approximately to a resistance

$$R_e = \frac{36}{f^2} 10^{-6} \Omega$$

where f is expressed in megacycles per second. If we attempt to compensate this damping with the help of the negative damping action of the second cathode connection, the sum of the damping by R_e and R_{L2} must disappear as follows:

$$\omega^2 L_2 C_1 S = \frac{f^2}{36} \cdot 10^{-6} \dots \dots \dots \quad (3)$$

The slope S of the valve EF 51 amounts to about 10 mA/V. Moreover $\omega = 2\pi f \times 10^6$, so that for the unknown circuit elements C_1 and L_2 we obtain the condition:

$$L_2 C_1 = \frac{10^{-15}}{10 \cdot 36 \cdot 4\pi^2} = 7 \cdot 10^{-20} \text{ farad henry.} \quad (4)$$

If we choose for C_1 a capacity of 1 picofarad then the self-induction of the cathode connection L_2 must be 7×10^{-8} henry, which is obtained by a wire about 6 cm long and 1 mm in diameter. We thus obtain elements which can easily be realized

²⁾ See C. J. Bakker, Philips techn. Rev. 1, 171, 1936.

in practice. The damping elimination indicated is valid for the whole range of short waves, since the value of $L_2 C_1$ determined by equation (4) is independent of the frequency.

The influence of two cathode connections on the output damping

If in addition to the input damping we also wish to influence the output damping in a favourable direction, a second auxiliary condenser C_2 must be placed between the anode and the lower end of the first cathode connection (see fig. 3). If e_a is the

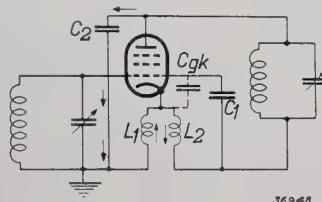


Fig. 3. Connection with two cathode connections and two auxiliary condensers C_1 and C_2 for the purpose of eliminating the input and the output damping. At the same time C_2 leads to a reactance capacity between anode and control grid, and thereby compensates the negative reactance capacity which is present at short waves due to other causes.

anode A.C. voltage over the oscillator circuit, then by approximation the following A.C. flows through this condenser:

$$iC_2 = e_a j\omega C_2,$$

along the path indicated by arrows via the self-inductances L_1 and L_2 . Between cathode and earth therefore an A.C. voltage occurs:

$$v_k = -j\omega L_1 iC_2 = e_a \omega^2 L_1 C_2.$$

This change in the cathode potential leads to an extra anode current $-Sv_k$, thus $-e_a \omega^2 L_1 C_2 S$. From this it is evident that a negative damping also occurs in the anode circuit, which is determined by a formula quite analogous to the negative damping of the grid circuit.

In almost all connections occurring in practice the anode circuit of the high-frequency amplifier valve is coupled with the input circuit of a second stage, for instance a second amplifier valve or a mixing valve. The negative damping of the anode circuit is at the same time a negative damping of the input circuit of the following stage so that in the latter the damping need not be eliminated or only to a smaller extent.

The influence of the two cathode connections on the reactance of the cathode on the control grid

As was stated in the discussion of the output damping, the A.C. voltage e_a over the anode circuit

leads to an A.C. along the path indicated by arrows (in fig. 3). This A.C. causes the A.C. voltage mentioned between cathode and earth:

$$v_k = e_a \omega^2 L_1 C_2$$

The A.C. flows further through the second cathode connection (self-induction L_2), so that the lower end of the latter possesses the following A.C. voltage with respect to earth:

$$v = e_a \omega^2 (L_1 + L_2) C_2$$

These two A.C. voltages result in alternating currents to the control grid via the capacities C_{gk} and C_1 , respectively. These capacities connect the control grid to points on which an A.C. voltage acts which is in phase with the anode A.C. voltage, but which has a much smaller amplitude. The effect of the A.C. voltages v_k and v on the control grid circuit is therefore exactly the same as if the capacities C_{gk} and C_1 were connected between control grid and anode, not with their whole magnitude, however, but reduced by a factor v_k/e_a and v/e_a . The total apparent capacity hereby caused between control grid and anode thus amounts to:

$$C_{ag}' = C_{gk} \frac{v_k}{e_a} + C_1 \frac{v}{e_a} = \\ = \omega^2 C_2 [L_1 (C_{gk} + C_1) + L_2 C_1] \dots (6)$$

This apparent capacity is now found to reduce the reactance at high frequencies, since the reactance already present due to other causes has at high frequencies the character of a negative apparent capacity³⁾, which like that of equation (6) is proportional to the square of the frequency. The size of this apparent capacity C_{ag}'' depends upon the manner of connection, and at a wave length of 2 m, for example, may amount to 0.2 pF. This would correspond to a behaviour according to the formula

$$C_{ag}'' = -2.25 \cdot 10^{-19} \omega^2 \text{ pF} \dots (7)$$

If the total reactance must just be made to disappear, care must be taken that

$$C_2 = \frac{2.25 \cdot 10^{-19}}{L_1 (C_{gk} + C_1) + L_2 C_1} \dots (8)$$

The capacity C_2 to be calculated from this, as was already indicated in the previous section, gives at the same time a negative damping of the anode circuit; in the case of the valve EF 51 this is found to be more than enough to combat the causes of damping present.

³⁾ See the first article referred to in footnote¹⁾, p. 113.

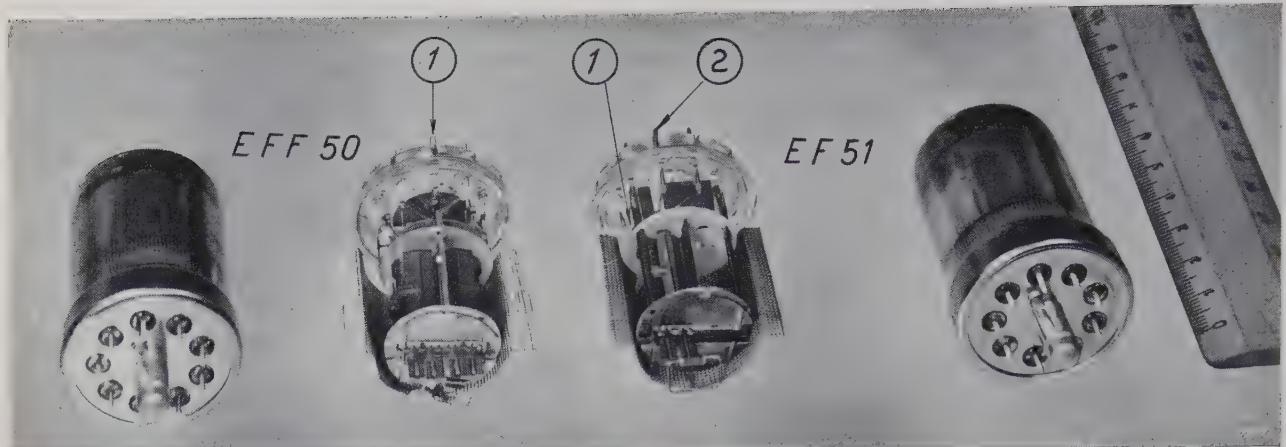


Fig. 4. Exterior and interior of the push-pull amplifier valve EFF 50, and of the valve with double cathode connection EF 51. The interior, from which the gauze screen has been removed, is mounted unsymmetrically in the case of the valve EF 51; 1 and 2 are the two cathode connections. In the case of the valve EFF 50 two identical systems are placed side-by-side and connected to a common cathode connection (1).

Construction of the amplifier valve with double cathode connection

In designing the amplifier valve with double cathode connection an attempt was made to make the harmful effect of the self-induction of the cathode connection as small as possible, even without the measures previously discussed. For this purpose the cathode connections, and particularly the first cathode connection, were kept extremely short, which could be done without changing the relative arrangement of the pins in the valve by placing the system unsymmetrically in the bulb, so that one end of the cathode falls exactly above the pin of the first cathode connection.

The construction of the valve with double cathode connection, type EF 51, is given in fig. 4. It may be seen that the appearance of this valve corresponds somewhat to that of the push-pull amplifier valve EFF 50 which is shown for the sake of comparison. In the case of the valve EF 51 the two cathode connections marked by arrows 1 and 2 may be distinguished; in the case of the push-pull amplifier valve, on the other hand, the two systems have a common cathode connection which is indicated by 1 in the photograph of the internal system.

The control grid of the valve EF 51, contrary

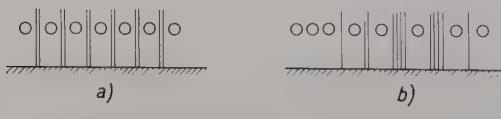


Fig. 5. a) Regular (b) irregular pitch of the control grid. For a control grid voltage in the regulation region the emission of the cathode is suppressed locally in the case of the irregularly wound grid.

to the case with EFF 50, has an irregular pitch (see fig. 5). In this way the magnitude of the negative control grid voltage, which is necessary to suppress the anode current, is made different for different parts of the cathode. In fig. 6 it may be seen what effects this has on the characteristic. In the case of the valve EFF 50 the anode current is practically entirely suppressed by a control grid voltage of -6 V, and slightly above this "cut off voltage" the slope of the I_a - V_g characteristic (slope S_1 in fig. 6) decreases very sharply with falling control grid voltage. In the valve EF 51, on the other hand, the cut off voltage is different from point to point, in other words, the cutting off takes place quite gradually. The result is that the change in the slope also takes place quite gradually. Thanks to this property of the EF 51 it is possible to regulate the amplification of the valve by changing the grid bias, without experiencing much difficulty with non-linear distortion.

The non-linear distortion is characterized in fig. 6 by the quotient S_3/S_1 . The coefficients S_1 and S_3 are thereby derived from the series:

$$S = S_1 + S_2 (V_g - V_{g0}) + S_3 (V_g - V_{g0})^2 + \dots$$

which represents the behaviour of the slope S in the neighbourhood of the operating point (grid voltage V_{g0}). The strength of the cross modulation and of certain other undesired phenomena is found to be directly proportional to S_3/S_1 ⁴), so that it is desirable to have this quotient as small as possible. As may be seen in fig. 6, S_3/S_1 , in the case of the

⁴ On this subject we refer the reader to the book: *Moderne Mehrgitter-Elektronenröhren*, by M. J. O. Strutt, Springer (Berlin), 2nd edition 1939, p. 17.

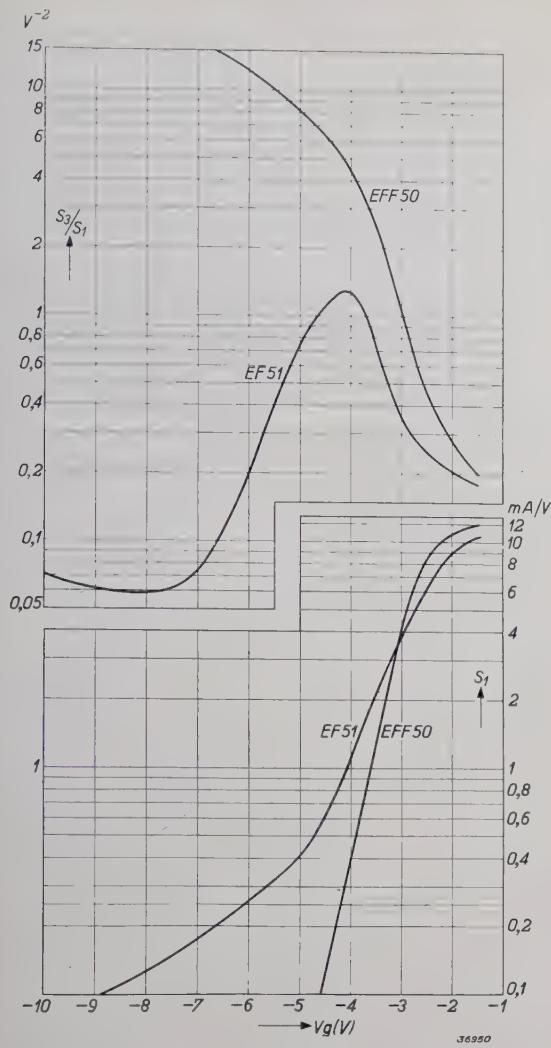


Fig. 6. Slope S_1 and distortion factor S_3/S_1 as a function of the grid voltage for the push-pull amplifier valve EFF 50 and for the valve with double cathode connection EF 51. The factor S_3/S_1 in the case of the valve EF 51, especially for large negative control grid voltages, is much smaller than in the valve EFF 50.

valve EF 51 is much smaller, especially for large negative grid voltages, than in the valve EFF 50.

Like all amplifier valves, the valve EF 51 exhibits a change in the input capacity upon regulation. This capacity variation may be unfavourable since due to it a detuning of the input circuit occurs. If only one cathode connection is used this capacity variation can for the most part be compensated in a simple way, for instance by the introduction of a resistance of about 30 ohms in this cathode connection. If both cathode connections are used the connections undergo several additional alterations.

The screen grid of the valve with double cathode connection is wound with a lower pitch than that of the push-pull amplifier valve. By this means the static capacity between control grid and anode is reduced and the internal resistance enlarged, which means an improvement of the valve qualities es-

pecially for not very short waves. In the following table the most important properties of the button pentode, the push-pull amplifier valve and the new amplifier valve with double cathode connection are shown side-by-side.

Table I
Properties of amplifier valves for very short waves.

Valve type	Button pentode 4 672	Push-pull amplifier valve EFF 50	Valve with double cathode connection EF 51
Slope (mA/V)	1.4	11*	10
Noise resistance R_r (ohms)	8 000	600*	900
Damping resistance R_e for $\lambda = 3$ m (ohms)	18 000	2 700*	3 600
R_r/R_e	0.44	0.22	0.25
C_{ag} for low frequencies (pF)	< 0.007	< 0.02	< 0.006

*) Per system (the valve contains two identical systems).

**) By this is meant the input parallel resistance which is equivalent to the damping due to the transit time of the electrons between cathode and control grid.

The noise qualities of the different valves are characterized in the table by the ratio between the so-called noise resistance R_r and the damping resistance R_e which occurs at the input side of the amplifier valve due to the finite transit time of the electrons between cathode and control grid. This quantity R_r/R_e is found in many practical cases to determine the maximum attainable ratio between signal voltage and noise voltage. From table I we see that the valve EF 51, as far as noise is concerned, is almost as good as the valve EFF 50 and considerably better than the button pentode 4 672.

Application of the valve with double cathode connection

The amplifier valve with double cathode connection will be used in the first place for the amplification of ultra short waves to a lower limit of 1.5 metres. These waves are of great importance, for example for telephony with directional aerials and possibly for television; in addition these frequencies are encountered as intermediate-frequency in superheterodyne receivers for still shorter waves.

The connections of the amplifier valve with double cathode connection can be based upon the diagram given in fig. 2, for example. This scheme

5) The capacity C_1 in many cases need not be realized by a separate condenser, but can be obtained by using the capacity between control grid and screen grid present in the valve. For this it is necessary that the screen grid should be connected for high frequency to the end of the second cathode connection, as is the case in the connections given in fig. 7.

is valid only for high-frequency currents, and must still be supplemented by the connection lines necessary for obtaining the desired biases of the different electrodes. In this way a scheme is arrived at like fig. 7, the functioning of which will be clear after the discussion of fig. 2.

If an attempt is made to apply these connections to practical cases, difficulties are found to occur due to parasitic capacities. The oscillation circuit LC in the anode circuit usually has a fairly considerable capacity with respect to earth or with respect to the chassis, and this capacity is in parallel with the capacity C_2 . We have seen that C_2 causes a reaction which need only be very small to elim-

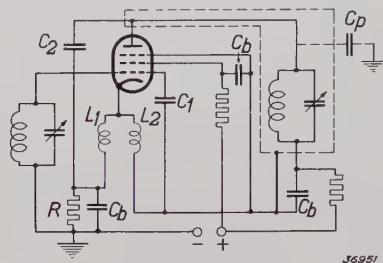


Fig. 7. Complete connections of a high-frequency amplifier stage with the valve EF 51 as amplifier valve. In order not to make the capacity C_2 too large due to the parasitic capacity C_p , the output circuit must be shielded. C_b block condensers. The resistance R serves to obtain the negative control grid bias.

inate the small negative reactance present. If C_2 becomes too great a positive reactance occurs which, like the negative reactance, may have unfavourable effects on the amplification, for instance, a tendency to oscillation⁶⁾. Therefore with these connections it is necessary to reduce the parasitic capacity between the oscillating circuit and earth, which can be done by housing the oscillating circuit in a closed container connected to the second cathode connection, as indicated in the figure.

If no other amplifier stage follows the connections just discussed, the method of shielding indicated can easily be realized. If, however, there are a number of stages in cascade, this is practically impossible. The anode A.C. voltage of the first valve must

⁶⁾ On the disturbing effect of reactance see the article on transmitting pentodes, Philips techn. Rev. 2, 257, 1937, especially fig. 3 and page 261.

always be transmitted to the control grid of the following valve, which itself already possesses a capacity of about 10 pF with respect to earth.

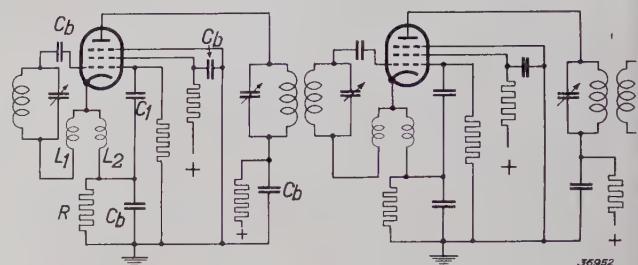


Fig. 8. Connections with the valve EF 51 in which no shielding of the output circuit is necessary. By inductive coupling any desired number of stages of this kind can be connected in succession. C_b block condensers. The resistance R serves for obtaining the negative control grid bias.

In order to be able to form cascade connections, therefore, it is desirable to use a connection with which no shielding of the anode circuit with respect to earth is necessary. Such a connection can be obtained very simply by connecting the second cathode connection in fig. 2, instead of the first, to earth. The scheme of connection thus obtained may be seen in fig. 8; it is also shown in this figure how by the use of an inductive coupling a second identical amplifier stage may be connected to the first stage. In this way any desired number of amplifier stages can be connected in succession. Instead of the magnetic coupling, electrostatic coupling can also be applied as shown in fig. 9. In this case two coupling condensers are required to take off the A.C. voltage to be transmitted from the two ends of the oscillation circuit. Apart from this the connections show no fundamental difference from the ordinary coupling with normal valves between successive stages.

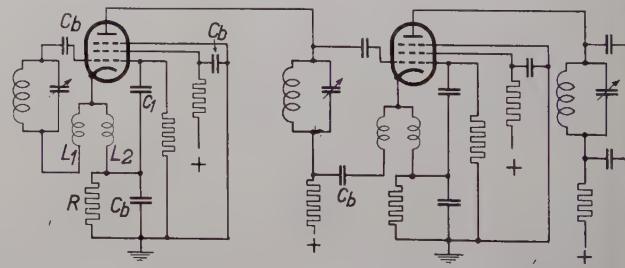


Fig. 9. Like fig. 8, but with a capacitative coupling between the stages.

ALPHABETICAL INDEX VOLUMES 1-5

The number in heavy print by each subject indicates the volume, the following number the page. If it is desired to know the complete title and the author of the article in which the subject in question is discussed, this can be looked up by means of the volume and page found in the chronologic index (pp. 000).

Adsorption phenomena at metal contacts	5,238	„Blocking” of oscillators, investigation with oscillograph	3,251	calculation, measurement, practical conclusions	2,148
Aerials:		Brightness:		enlarge by post-acceleration	5,245
communal — („Antennaphil”)	1,246	definition and significance	1,142	secondary emission of screen	3,214
receiving — („Philastatic”)	4,320	of mercury lamp and sun	1,62	ray intensity, regulation	1,91
rotating directional — PCJ		of night sky	5,296	television tube with magnetic deflection	4,349
transmitter	3,59	Broadcasting:		television tube with projection of image	2,249
Aerodromes:		motor van for —	4,73	applications in which an ordinary oscillograph apparatus is used, see under Cathode-ray oscillograph	
illumination and beaconing	4,93	studio installations	4,135	Chrome iron for metal-glass joints	2,306
radio beacons	2,370	studio K.R.O. investigation with optical model	5,321	Cold emission	4,103
Aeroplane radio:		Bulbs, flower, influence of X-ray treatment on	2,321	Colour photography, additive method	5,48
position and course finding	2,184	Bullet finder	5,309	Colour rendering of light sources:	
transmitter-receiver V.R. 18	1,114			improvement:	
transmitter-receiver with course finder (plate)	2,182	Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, X-ray installation	4,153	electric lamps („Philiphane” glass)	3,46
Amplifier installations, see Sound amplification Amplifiers		Candle power, new	5,1	mercury lamps (luminescence)	3,272
negative feed-back, see under that title noise of —	2,136	Carrier-wave telephony, see Telephony		mixed light	5,353
use intelephony	2,209	Cathode	1,367	method of comparison of sources of „white” light	2,1
Amplifier valves, see Radio valves		Cathode-ray oscillograph:		photometer for investigation	4,66
Analysis:		applications:		Coulours	
mixtures of argon and nitrogen	5,88	armatures, testing in mass production	4,88	colour vision	1,282
polarography	4,231	„blocking” of oscillators	3,251	diagram (ICI triangle)	2,39
X-ray diffraction for —	1,158	chemical analysis (polarography)	4,231	Condensers:	
Apparatus for defective hearing	4,316	depth of modulation	3,249	electrolytic —	2,65
Architecture and illumination	2,8	electron switch as auxiliary	3,148	heavy current —	1,178
Armatures, testing	4,88	frequency measurement	3,341	linear action —	4,277
Artificial resin:		frequency modulation, control	3,248	pressure —	4,254
X-ray diffraction diagrams	2,256	fuses	4,118	standard —	5,300
see further „Philite”		gas-discharge lamps, current and voltage	3,148	Contact resistance:	
Artificial respiration, apparatus	4,325	hysteresis loop	3,341	convergenxe resistance	4,332
Auditorium acoustics:		I_a - V_a diagrams	3,339	transition resistance (influence of adsorption)	5,238
intelligibility	3,139	mechanical stresses	5,26	Contrasts and visibility:	
reverberation	3,65	mechanical vibrations	5,230	in road lighting	1,166
sound absorption	3,363	pith of orchestra, control	4,205	in X-ray fluoroscopy	4,114
opticols models:		power mains	3,30	Converter of direct current, see Vibrator	
investigation directional distribution	5,321	resonance curves of receiving sets	4,85	Course finder for aeroplanes	2,184
principle; investigation intensity distribution	1,46	construction:		Crystal structure, see Structure analysis	
Automobile radio:		GM 3150	1,147		
receiving set	3,112	GM 3152	4,198		
transmitting-receiving set	5,315	GM 3156 (tool making)	5,277		
		see also Cathode-ray tube			
Band spread	4,286	Cathode-ray tube:			
Baretters	3,74	electrode system, potential field (plate)	4,229	Damping mechanical vibrations	1,370
Beacons for aerodromes:		focussing of electron beam	1,33	Decibel, definition and use	2,47
light beacons	4,93	post-acceleration tube	5,245	Decimal classification	3,27
radio beacons	2,370	applications:		Density meter	5,331
„Bi-Arlita” lamp	1,97	characteristics of output valves	5,61	Diamond:	
Bicycle dynamo	3,87	characteristics of transmitter valves	4,56	crystal defects	2,254
Bicycle rear lights and reflectors	5,335	phase angles, measurement	5,208	dies	5,14
Biological effect of ultraviolet radiation:		pressure indication	5,3	Dies:	
cure of rickets (Vitamin D)	3,33	recording oscillograms	2,148	diamond	5,14
erythema and conjunctivitis	2,20	scanning speed:		hard-cemented carbides	4,309
„Biosol” lamp	2,18	apparatus for measuring	3,216	Direct-current dynamo’s, voltage regulation with triodes	3,97
Black-out illumination, see Illumination				Disc test for machinability	1,183
Blocking-layer rectifiers, see Rectifiers (blocking-layer rectifiers)					1,200

Distortion:		Foundry:	
in coil-load cables	4,79	high-frequency furnace	1,53
in the ear	4,172	X-ray testing of castings	2,377
due to magnetic causes	2,193		
measurement of — in loud speakers	4,353	Frequency characteristic, recording:	
reduction by negative feed-back, see Negative feed-back		automatic recording apparatus	4,354
Dynatron	3,133	tone generator for —	5,263
Ear:		Frequency measurement of, with oscilloscope	3,341
distortion	4,162	Frequency modulation, control with oscilloscope	3,248
perception of pitch	5,286	Fuses, electrical testing with oscilloscope	4,118
sensitivity	2,50		
Electric lamps, see Light sources		Gas-discharge lamps:	
Electrolytic condenser	2,65	alternating current connection	2,103
Electrometer triode	5,54	oscillographic investigation	3,148
Electron diffraction diagrams	5,161	see also Gas discharges and Light sources (mercury and sodium lamps)	
Electron microscope:		Gas-discharges:	
construction and applications	1,312	comparison of sodium and mercury lamp	1,2
investigation of α - γ transition in iron	1,317	excitation and ionization in positive column	3,157
Electron multipliers:		light emission in positive column of mercury, sodium, neon	3,197
construction	3,134	luminescent tube-wall with low-pressure mercury column	3,272
use in television transmitter	2,72	Gas-filled photocells, inertia	4,48
Electron switch:		Gas-filled rectifier valves:	
description	4,267	physical principles	2,122
example of application	3,150	see also Rectifiers (hot-cathode rectifiers)	
Electron trajectories:		Getters	5,217
in magnetron	4,193	Glare in street lighting	1,225
model for investigation of —	2,338	Glass:	
in multigrid valves	5,131	composition properties, use	2,87
Electronic valves, see Radio valves		joints with metals (chrome iron)	2,306
Enamelled wire	3,39	metal leads through —	3,119
Equivalent networks with highly saturated iron cores	2,276	Gramophone records:	
Exposition illumination, see Illumination		simple apparatus for recording	4,106
Eye:		speed of playing	2,56
characteristics with reference to level of illumination of roads	1,102	stereophony on —	5,182
colour perception	1,283		
colour space diagram	2,39	Hard metal ("hard cemented carbides"):	
contrast sensitivity	1,166	Hardness, definition and measurement	2,177
glare	1,225	High-frequency furnace with valve generator	1,53
sensitivity	5,296	High-voltage:	
speed of vision	1,215	assembly of 10^6 volt generator (plate)	
visual acuity	1,215	generator for 10^6 volts on the cascade principle	1,6
Fastness-to-light meter:		installation of Cavendish Laboratory	2,161
description	1,277	X-ray tube construction	4,153
radiation intensity	2,282	Impulse voltage generators, see under that title	
Field strength measurement:		Hysteresis loop:	
accuracy	5,149	measuring apparatus for soft iron	2,84
recording apparatus	2,216	oscillographic recording	3,341
Film projection with water-cooled mercury lamps	4,2		
Filters, electrical:		Iconoscope:	
general theory	1,240	Iconoscope	1,18
high and band-pass	1,327		
low-pass	1,298	Illumination:	
practical calculation	1,270	aerodromes	4,93
table	1,332	architecture and —	2,8
transmitting of impulse	1,363		
Filters, magnetic, for oil	2,295	blackout illumination:	
Flashlight lamps:		brightness of night sky	5,296
peak time	4,148	filter method	5,93
“Photoflux”	1,289	principles	4,15
synchronizers	2,334	cruiser „de Ruyter”, festive — (plate)	1,282
Flicker, gas-discharge lamps, improvement by luminescence	3,277	expositions:	
Fluorescence, see Luminescence		Liège 1939	5,42
		Paris 1937	2,361
		“Well lighted house”	4,174
		general principles of public — indirect —, light distribution on reflection	5,125
		League of Nations Palace, Geneva	3,322
		linear light sources:	
		illumination intensity, shadows, reflection	4,181
		reflecting surfaces	5,16
		mixed light	5,353
		railway yards	4,62
		road lighting, see under that title	
		ships („Nieuw Amsterdam”)	3,356
		streets:	
		principles	2,142
		reflector	5,222
		tennis courts	1,252
		work benches	3,53
		Impulse-voltage generators:	
		for 2×10^6 V	1,236
		for 4×10^6 V and 8 kW sec	3,306
		Indicator for internal combustion motors:	
		5,360	
		Infra red radiation, surveillance system:	
		1,306	
		Intelligibility:	
		3,139	
		Inverse feed-back:	
		principles and possibilities of application	2,289
		use for expansion in sound reproduction	3,204
		use in receiving sets	1,268
		use in repeaters	2,209
		Iron filament resistances	3,74
		Iron lung	4,325
		Lamps, see Light sources	
		Laryngophone	5,6
		Leads, metal, through hard glass and silica	3,119
		League of Nations Palace, Geneva:	
		electro-acoustic equipment	3,322
		illumination	3,175
		Liège, illumination of Water Exposition 1939:	
		5,42	
		Light-house lamps	4,29
		Light intensity, unit	5,1
		Lighting, electrical data	2,225
		Light sources:	
		alternating current connections of gas-discharge lamps	2,103
		bicycle rear lights	5,335
		colour rendering, see under that title	
		Incandescent electric lamps:	
		assembly of 10 kW lamp (plate)	4,41
		„Bi-Arlita” lamp	1,97
		light-house lamps	4,29
		“Protector” lamps	4,15
		tungsten ribbon lamps	5,82
		Linear —, see Illumination	
		luminescence lamps, tubular	4,337
		Mercury lamps:	
		„Biosol” lamp	2,18

comparison with sodium 1,2
 lamps 1,70
 high-pressure —, air-cooled:
 HP 300 1,129
 HPL (luminescence) 5,
 for enlarging apparatus 3,91
 for photography 4,27
 high-pressure —, water-cooled:
 brightness 1,62
 for film projection 4,2
 HP and SP 2,165
 low-pressure —, with luminescence 4,337
 mixed-light lamp 5,353

sodium lamps:
 applications in photography 2,24
 comparison with mercury 1,2
 lamps 1,70
 high-frequency oscillations 1,87
 principles and development 2,353

Linear light sources:
 application, see **Illumination**
 luminescence lamps 4,337

Loading coils:
 magnetic core material 2,77
 use, see **Telephony**
 X-ray examination of core material 2,93

Loud speakers:
 directional effect, sound diffusers 4,144
 efficiency 4,301
 testing 4,354

Luminescence:
application:
 in high-pressure mercury lamp 5,353
 in low-pressure mercury lamp:
 practical application 4,337
 principles 3,272
 for testing and research 3,5
 fluorescence and phosphorescence, different forms 3,241
 fluorescence phenomena, theory 3,125

Machinability, estimation by disk test 1,183
 1,200

Magnetrons:
 theory 4,189
 use in transmitter 2,299

Magnets:
 calculation 5,29
 lifting power 5,195

Magnet steel:
 theory, properties of different kinds 2,233
 use for magnets 5,29

Mains:
 oscillographic investigation 3,50
 protection against surge voltages 2,225

Manometers for low gas pressures 2,201

Manufacture, methods of checking:
 cathode-ray oscilloscope for testing 4,85
 universal testing set for radio valves 2,57
 X-ray control of assembly 3,186

Material testing:
 automatic — with ionization chambers and X-rays 3,228
 electron microscope for — 1,313
 hardness 2,177
 machinability 1,183
 structure analysis; see under that title

X-ray —:
 apparatus 5,69
 examples:
 assembly 3,186
 castings 2,377
 riveted joints 2,350
 welds 3,92
 method 2,314

Measuring bridge, simple apparatus 2,217

Mechanical stresses, investigation:
 with cathode-ray oscilloscope (varying —) 5,26
 with X-ray diffraction 1,373

Mechanical vibrations:
 damping of — 1,370
 vibration recorder for investigation of — with oscilloscope 5,230

Megaphone, electrical 4,272

Mercury cathode, metal rectifier with 1,65

Mercury lamps, see Light sources

Metal-vapour lamps, see Gas-discharge lamps

Microphones:
 absolute calibrated — 1,84
 laryngophone 5,6
 review of different kinds 5,140

Mixing valves, four beam electrode 3,266

Modulation depth, measurement with oscilloscope 3,248

Motor van for sound recording 4,73

Music:
 fortissimo and pianissimo 1,266
 pitch intervals 2,47
 pitch of orchestras, statistics 4,205
 pitch, standard 5,243
 playing speed of gramophone records 2,56

Musical instruments:
 church bells 5,293
 compass of various — 2,49
 violin, amplification of sound 5,36

Neon lamps for irradiation of plants 1,193

Networks:
 duality of — and geometric configurations 5,324
 equivalent —, with highly saturated iron core 2,276
 filters, see under that title

Neutrons production and use 3,331

„Nieuw Amsterdam”, illumination 3,356

Nipkow disc:
 construction 4,42
 interlaced scanning 3,285
 use in television transmitter 2,72

Noise:
 in amplifiers 2,136
 in amplifier valves 2,329
 in receiving sets 3,189
 in ultra short wave reception 5,172

„Normandie”, sound distribution 1,22
 Nuclear physics 2,97

Octave and decibel 2,47
 Oil filters, magnetic 2,295

Optical models for investigation of auditorium acoustics:
 investigation of directional distribution 5,321
 principle; investigation of intensity distribution 1,46

Optical telephony 1,152

Oscillograms, distortion:
 causes in the amplifier 5,281
 causes in the tube 4,199
 5,251

Output valves, see Radio valves

Paris, illumination world exposition 1937 2,361

Pearls, X-ray testing for genuineness 1,60
 2,156

Pentodes, see **Radio valves** and **Transmitter valves**

Perception of pitch 5,286

Phase angles, measurement with cathode-ray tube 5,208

Phase displacement, measurement 5,300

“Philiphane” glass, influence on colour rendering 3,46

Philips-Miller system of sound recording:
 machine for recording and reproduction 5,74
 principle 1,107
 recording strip 1,231
 sound recorder 1,135
 sound-track cutter 1,211
 use in motor van 4,73
 “hilishave” shaving apparatus 4,350

„Philite”:
 — presses with 1000 ton pressure (plate) 1,257
 properties and manufacture 3,9
 use, table of properties 2,270

pH measurement with electrometer triode 5,54

Phosphorescence, see Luminescence

Photocells:
 amplification by secondary emission 5,253
 application of:
 optical telephony 1,152
 photometry 4,66
 5,166
 4,260
 surveillance system 1,306
 television 2,72
 iconoscope 1,18
 inertia, gas-filled — 4,48
 principles and development 2,13

Photocurrent, measurements with 4,66
 electrometer triode 5,54

“Photoflux” lamp 1,289

Photography:
 colour photography, additive method 5,48
 enlarging apparatus with mercury lamps 3,91
 flashlight lamps, see under that subject
 — with mercury light (HPL lamp) 4,27
 — with sodium light 2,24

Photometry:

definitions of brightness	1,142
general problems	1,120
physical —	4,260
spectral — (block method)	4,55
subjective —	5,270
technical —	5,166
tungsten ribbon lamps for —	5,82
unit of light intensity	5,1
Planigraphy	5,309
Plants, irradiation of	1,193
Polarography	4,231
Positive column, see Gas discharges	
Potential fields, recording with electrolytic tank	4,223
Powder metallurgy	4,309
Pressure condensers	4,254
Pressure indicator	5,360
„Protector” lamps	4,15
Push-pull amplifier valve (EFF 50)	5,172

Quartz glass, metal leads	3,119
-------------------------------------	-------

Radiation measurements:

density meter	5,331
with ionization chamber and electrometer triode	5,54
Photographic (X-ray) dosages	1,62

Radio interferences:

causes and method of transmission	3,235
combatting	4,237
— due to sodium lamps	1,87

Radio receiving sets:

band spread	4,284
car radio	3,112
compression and expansion	3,204
frequency characteristics	5,115
magnetic tuning; negative feed-back	1,264
noise of —	3,189
push-button tuning:	
with linear action condenser	4,277
with motor	3,253

resonance curves, control in mass production	4,85
superheterodyne principle, demonstration	1,76
superregenerative reception	5,315

Radio valves:

characteristics, recording	3,339
with oscilloscope	5,61
construction; all-glass —	4,162
electron trajectories in —	5,131
influence of transit times, self induction, mutual induction of connections	3,103
influence of transit times and space charge; amplification with negative anode	1,171
measuring apparatus for —	2,57
noise of —	2,329
pumping plant for — (plate)	3,147
secondary emission in —:	
application	3,133
harmful results	3,211

special valves:	
double cathode connection (EF 51)	5,369
electrometertriode	5,54
four-beam electrode	3,266
gas-filled triodes	1,371
output valves, power and distortion	5,189

output valves, testing with oscilloscope	5,61
push-pull amplifier valve (EFF 50)	5,172

Radio waves, propagation	4,245
Railway yards, illumination	4,62

Rare gases:

analysis of argon-nitrogen mixtures	5,88
manufacture of —	4,128

Rear lights for bicycles	5,335
------------------------------------	-------

Recrystallization, X-ray investigation	2,29
--	------

Rectifiers:

blocking-layer rectifiers:	
theory	4,100
use of selenium valves	5,199

controllable unit 20 kV, 18 amp	1,161
---	-------

hot-cathode rectifying valves:	
high-voltage valves	1,8
principles of gas-filled rectifier valves	2,122

relay valve (DCG 5/30)	1,163
mercury cathode, metal valve with	1,65

for telephone exchanges	1,295
-----------------------------------	-------

Receiving sets, see Radio receiving sets
--

Reflexion:

brightness coefficients of road surfaces	3,313
--	-------

light distribution upon — by different materials	5,125
--	-------

triple mirror (bicycle reflectors).	5,335
---	-------

Reflector for street lighting	5,222
---	-------

Relaxation oscillations	1,39
-----------------------------------	------

Relay valves:	
controllable rectifier unit with — DCG 5/30	1,161

— as timing devices in seam welding	1,11
---	------

Resistance measurements:

apparatus for —	2,270
---------------------------	-------

— of liquids	3,183
------------------------	-------

Resonance curves of receiving sets, measurement	4,85
---	------

Reverberation	3,65
-------------------------	------

Ribbon lamps	5,82
------------------------	------

Riveted joints, X-ray investigation	2,350
---	-------

Road lighting:

installed systems:	
measurements	4,292

Purley Way, Croydon (plate)	1,230
---------------------------------------	-------

physiological principles:

brightness and apparent brightness	1,142
--	-------

general properties of the eye	1,102
---	-------

glare	1,225
-----------------	-------

sensitivity to contrast and wealth of contrast	1,166
--	-------

visual acuity and speed of vision	1,215
---	-------

reflection of road surface:

desired brightnesses and contrasts	2,239
--	-------

distribution of brightness	3,313
--------------------------------------	-------

visibility meter for judging	1,349
--	-------

„Rotalix” X-ray tube	3,292
--------------------------------	-------

Scanning speed, see Cathode-ray tube**Secondary emission:**

applications:	
cathode-ray tube	3,214
dynatron, electron multiplier, amplifier valves	3,133
photocell	5,253
emission of different materials	3,80
undesired effects in amplifier valves	3,211

Selenium valves:

principles, preparation	4,100
use in rectifiers	5,199
Shaving apparatus „Philishave”	4,350

Soapstone, X-ray tests

.	1,60
-----------	------

.	2,157
-----------	-------

Sodium lamps, see Light sources**Sound:**

application:	
apparatus for improving defective hearing	4,316
League of Nations Palace	3,312
megaphone	4,272
“Normandie”	1,22
principles, applications	3,221

auditorium acoustics, see**under that title distribution, see — amplification**

intensity of different sources	2,54
--	------

radiation:

pressure measurements	1,82
theory and models	4,213

recording:

gramophone records, simple apparatus	4,106
machines for sound film	5,74
motor van for —	4,73
Philips-Miller system, see under that title stereophone records	5,182

reproduction:

compression and expansion	3,204
fortissimo and pianissimo	2,266
in radio apparatus	5,115
stereophonic —	5,107

spectra:

acoustic spectroscope	4,290
light diffraction by sound film	3,298
synthetic sound	4,167
tone generator	5,263
units	2,47

.	5,243
-----------	-------

Sound diffusers in loud speakers**Sound film:**

light diffraction by —	3,298
machines for recording and reproduction	5,74
Philips-Miller system, see under that title	

Spring balance	1,126
--------------------------	-------

Stabilizer with highly saturated iron core	2,276
--	-------

Starting resistances, automatic	1,205
---	-------

Stereophony:

principles	5,107
stereophone records	5,182
stereophonic apparatus for the deaf	4,316

Street lighting, see Illumination**Structure analysis, X-ray:**

applications:	
analysis of mixtures	1,158
crystal defects	2,254
crystal size	2,255

identification	1,31 1,158 1,188	Topological consideration of networks 5,324	transforming direct current voltage 3,114
mixed crystals	1,220 1,252	Transmitters:	Violin, perspectives in development 5,36
recrystallization	2,29	broadcast transmitter Rio de Janeiro (plate) 3,58	Visibility meter:
strains	1,373	short wave station P.C.J. 3,17	principle and construction 1,351
survey	5,157 1,60	television transmitters, see Television transmitting-receiving installations	use, results of measurements 4,292
texture	1,95 2,93	transmitter-receiver installations:	Vitamine D 3,33
method:	2,156	for aeroplanes 1,114	Voltage regulation of direct current generators with triodes 3,97
general	1,29	for automobiles 5,315	
"sensitive" lines	1,253	Eindhoven-Mijmegen 2,299	
X-ray tube for —	3,259	Eindhoven-Tilburg 2,171	
Studio equipment	4,136	Transmitting valves:	
Superheterodyne reception, demonstration model	1,76	air-cooled — 4,121	
Superregenerative receiver	5,315	characteristics, recording with cathode-ray tube 4,56	
Surface layers, X-ray investigation	1,31 1,95	development, manufacture of — 2,115	
Surge voltages, protection of mains against	2,225	gas-filled triodes 1,367	
Surveillance system with infra red rays	1,306	hum of — 5,100	
Synchronizers for flash light photography	2,334	pentodes 2,257	
Synthetic sound	4,167	Triodes, see Radio valves and Transmitting valves	
Telephony:		Tuberculosis detection by large scale X-ray examination 1,339	
carrier-wave telephony:		Tungsten:	
on coil-loaded cables	4,20	preparation 4,309	
distortion in coil-loaded cables	4,79	thorium in — 1,189	
filters, see under that title		working (plate) 5,121	
loading coils:		α and β modification 1,190	
core material	2,77	Tungsten ribbon lamps 5,82	
use	1,357		
optical telephony	1,152	Ultra short waves:	
rectifiers for exchanges	1,295	amplifier valves:	
repeaters	2,209	double cathode connection 5,369	
ultra short wave telephone connections:		general behaviour on ultra short waves 1,171	
Eindhoven-Nijmegen	2,299	push-pull amplifier valve 5,172	
Eindhoven-Tilburg	2,173	automobile transmitter receiver 5,315	
with moving automobiles	5,315	magnetron 4,189	
Telescope mirrors	1,362	propagation of — 4,245	
Television:		telephone connections, see Telephony	
experimental transmitter	1,16	Ultra violet radiation:	
Nipkow disc, construction	4,42	biological effects:	
projection of image	2,249 2,33	general 2,18	
receiving sets	1,342	vitamine D 3,33	
transmitter with iconoscope	1,325	technical application for luminescence research 3,5	
odem, portable	3,1		
transmitter with Nipkow disc	2,72	Units:	
idem with interlaced scanning	3,285	decibel 2,47	
Temperature measurement with thermo-elements	5,214	new candle power 5,1	
Texture investigation, see Structure analysis		phon 5,243	
Thermo-elements for temperature measurement	5,214		
Thermojoctions	3,165	Vibration recorder 5,230	
Tone generaotr	5,263		
Vibrator:			
converter direct into alternating current	2,346	Zirconium:	
		preparation and use 3,345	
		use as getter 5,217	

CHRONOLOGICAL INDEX VOLUMES 1-5

VOLUME 1, 1936

Page	Page
Introduction - G. Holst	
Comparison between discharge phenomena in sodium and mercury vapour lamps I - G. Heller	193
A modern high-voltage equipment - S. Gradstein	200
Relay valves as timing devices in seam-welding practice - D. M. Duinker	205
An experimental television transmitter and receiver - J. van der Mark	211
The loudspeaker and sound-amplifying installation on the T.S.S. "Normandie" - N. A. Halbertsma	211
How does a welding electrode fuse? - J. Sack	215
Practical applications of X-rays for the examination of materials I - W. G. Burgers	220
The production of sharp fluorescent spots in cathode ray tubes - G. P. Ittmann	225
Relaxation oscillations - S. Gradstein	230
Optical model experiments for studying the acoustics of theatres - R. Vermeulen and J. de Boer	231
A high-frequency furnace with valve generator - G. Heller	
Practical applications of X-rays for the examination of materials II - W. G. Burgers	236
Dosage control in X-ray laboratories and works	240
A new metal rectifying valve with mercury cathode - J. G. W. Mulder	246
Comparison between discharge phenomena in sodium and mercury vapour lamps II - G. Heller	252
Demonstration model illustrating superheterodyne reception - H. J. J. Bouman	253
Absolute sound-pressure measurements - J. de Boer	257
High-frequency oscillations in sodium lamps - L. Blok	264
Control of the beam intensity in cathode ray tubes - G. P. Ittmann	270
Practical applications of X-rays for the examination of materials III - W. G. Burgers	277
The development of the coiled-coil lamp - W. Geiss	282
Characteristics of the eye with special reference to road lighting - P. J. Bouma	283
The Philips-Miller system of sound recording - R. Vermeulen	289
The V.R. 18 transmitting and receiving equipment - C. Romeyn	295
The photometry of metal vapour lamps - G. Heller	306
A very sensitive spring balance - C. J. Dippel	312
The mercury vapour lamp HP 300 - G. Heller	317
The sound recorder of the Philips-Miller system - A. Th. van Urk	321
The definitions of brightness and apparent brightness and their importance in road lighting and photometry - P. J. Bouma	327
An oscillograph apparatus - G. P. Ittmann	335
Optical telephony - J. W. L. Köhler	338
Practical applications of X-rays for the examination of materials IV - W. G. Burgers	349
A controllable rectifier unit for 20 000 Volts/18 Amperes - J. G. W. Mulder and H. L. van der Horst	353
The reception of brightness contrasts in road lighting - P. J. Bouma	358
Some characteristics of receiving valves in shortwave reception - C. J. Bakker	363
Heavy-current condensers - H. Ehrnreich	367
A speed-increment test as a short-time testing method for estimating the machinability of steels - P. Clausing	370
Practical applications of X-rays for the examination of materials V - W. G. Burgers	373

VOLUME 2, 1937

Page	Page		
Colour reproduction in the use of different sources of "white" light - P. J. Bouma	1	Non-linear distortion phenomena of magnetic origin -	193
Illumination and architecture - L. C. Kalff	8	J. W. L. Köhler	193
The photo-electric effect and its application in photo-electric cells - M. C. Teves	13	High-vacuum gauges - F. M. Penning	201
Spectral distribution of the radiation from the "Biosol" - A. van Wijk	18	The use of amplifiers (repeaters) in telephony - W. Six and H. Mulders	209
The "Philora" sodium lamp and its importance to photography - J. A. M. van Liempt	24	A recording field-strength meter of high sensitivity - M. Ziegler	216
Practical applications of X-rays for the examination of materials IX - W. G. Burgers	29	Surge protection of low-tension overhead lines - J. W. G. Mulder	225
A television receiver - C. L. Richards	33	Magnet steels - J. L. Snoek	233
The representation of colour sensations in a colour space-diagram or colour triangle - P. J. Bouma	39	Technical considerations in the lighting of country roads - G. B. van der Werfhorst	239
Octaves and decibels - R. Vermeulen	47	The enlarged projection of television pictures - M. Wolf	249
The playing speed of gramophone records - J. de Boer . .	56	Practical applications of X-rays to the examination of materials XII - W. G. Burgers	254
A universal testing set for radio valves - D. Eringa . .	57	Five-electrode transmitting valves (pentodes) - J. P. Heyboer	257
Electrolytic condensers - W. Ch. van Geel and A. Claassen	65	The relationship between fortissimo and pianissimo - R. Vermeulen	266
Television system with Nipkow disc - H. Rinia and C. Dorsman	72	A simple electrical measuring bridge - P. G. Cath . . .	270
Magnetic cores for loading coils - J. L. Snoek	77	Equivalent networks with highly-saturated iron cores with special reference to their use in the design of stabilisers - H. A. W. Klinkhamer	276
An apparatus for hysteresis measurements on soft magnetic materials - J. J. Went	84	The radiation intensity of the Philips fastness-to-light meter - J. F. H. Custers	282
Glass for modern electric lamps and radio valves - J. Smelt	87	Inverse feed-back - B. D. H. Tellegen	289
Practical applications of X-rays for the examination of materials X - W. G. Burgers	93	The application of magnetic oil filters to lubricating systems - L. H. de Langen	295
Nuclear physics - W. de Groot	97	A decimetre wave radio link between Eindhoven and Nijmegen - C. G. A. von Lindern and G. de Vries . .	299
Alternating-current circuits for discharge lamps - E. G. Dorgelo	103	Joints between metal and glass - H. J. Meerkamp van Embden	306
Public lighting, principles of road lighting - G. B. van der Werfhorst	110	Illumination of the Eiffel-tower at the Paris World Exhibition (1937) (Picture)	313
Development and manufacture of modern transmitting valves - H. G. Boumeester	115	The examination of the macro-structure of raw materials and products with the help of X-rays I - J. E. de Graaf .	314
Physical principles of gasfilled hot-cathode rectifiers - M. J. Druyvesteyn and J. G. W. Mulder	122	The influence of X-ray treatment on flower bulbs (hyacinths and tulips) - W. E. de Mol	321
Welding and welding rods - J. Sack	129	Noise in amplifiers contributed by the valves - M. Ziegler .	329
The causes of noise in amplifiers - M. Ziegler	136	The adjustment of synchronizers for the "Photoflux" photo flash bulb - J. A. M. van Liempt and J. A. de Vriend .	334
Public lighting, principles of street illumination - G. B. van der Werfhorst	142	The motion of an electron in two-dimensional electrostatic fields - P. H. J. A. Kleynen	338
The recording of rapidly occurring electric phenomena with the aid of the cathode ray tube and the camera - J. F. H. Custers	148	A vibrator for the connection of alternating current receiving sets to the direct current mains - J. W. Alexander	346
Practical applications of X-ray analysis to the testing of materials XI - W. G. Burgers	156	The investigation of the macro-structure of raw materials and products by means of X-rays II - J. E. de Graaf .	350
A generator for very high direct current voltage - A. Kuntke	161	The sodium lamp, from laboratory experiment to street lighting - E. G. Dorgelo and P. J. Bouma	353
Water-cooled mercury lamps - E. G. Dorgelo	165	Illumination at the International Exhibition in Paris 1937 - L. C. Kalff	361
An ultra short wave telephone link between Eindhoven and Tilburg - C. G. A. von Lindern and G. de Vries . .	171	Radio landing beacons for aerodromes - P. Zijlstra .	370
The measurement of the hardness of metals and alloys - E. M. H. Lips	177	The examination of the macro-structure of materials and products with the help of X-rays III - J. E. de Graaf .	377
Transmitting and receiving equipment V.R. 35 combined with the automatic pilot V.P.K. 35 (picture)	182		
Position finding and course plotting on board an aeroplane by means of radio - G. P. Ittmann	184		

VOLUME 3, 1938

Page	Page		
A transportable television installation - J. van der Mark	1	A simple arrangement for the measurement of the specific resistance of liquids - A. Claassen	183
The use of ultraviolet radiation in industrial luminescence research - A. van Wijk	5	The examination of the macro-structure of materials and products with the help of X-rays V - J. E. de Graaf . .	186
"Philite" as a structural material - L. L. C. Polis . . .	9	Noise in receiving sets - M. Ziegler	189
The experimental short wave broadcasting station PCJ - P. J. H. A. Nordlohne	17	Emission of light in the positive column at low pressure - W. Uyterhoeven	197
The universal decimal classification - L. C. J. te Boekhorst	27	Compression and expansion in sound transmission - V. Cohen Henriquez	204
Lamp manufacture and vitamine research - A. van Wijk	33	Phenomena in amplifier valves caused by secondary emission - J. L. H. Jonker	211
Properties and applications of enamelled wire - J. Hoekstra	40	An apparatus for the measurement of scanning speeds of cathode ray tubes - L. Blok	216
The colour reproduction of incandescent lamps and "Philiphane glass" - P. J. Bouma	47	Sound amplification and public address - J. de Boer .	221
Applications of cathode ray tube I - H. van Suchtelen	50	Automatic macroscopic examination of materials with X-rays - J. E. de Graaf and J. H. van der Tuuk . .	228
Work-bench illumination - N. A. Halbertsma	53	Radio interference - L. Blok	235
Broadcasttransmitter Rio de Janeiro (Picture)	58	Fluorescence and phosphorescence - J. H. Gisolf and W. de Groot	241
A rotating directional aerial for short wave broadcasting - P. J. H. A. Nordlohne	59	Applications of cathode-ray tubes III - H. van Suchtelen .	248
Auditorium acoustics and reverberation - A. Th. van Urk	65	Radio receivers with push-button tuning - A. Horowitz and J. A. van Lammeren	253
Barretters - J. G. W. Mulder	74	X-ray tube for the analysis of crystal structure - J. E. de Graaf and W. J. Oosterkamp	259
Secondary electron emission - H. Bruining	80	A new frequency-changing valve - J. L. H. Jonker and A. J. W. M. van Overbeek	266
An alternating current dynamo with a flat characteristic for bicycle illumination - H. A. G. Hazeu and M. Kiek	87	Low-pressure mercury discharge within a luminescent tube - W. Uyterhoeven and G. Zecher	272
The use of the "Philora" HP mercury discharge lamp in an enlarging apparatus - J. A. M. van Liempt . . .	91	The tensile strength of deposited weld metal - J. Sack .	279
The examination of the macro-structure of materials and products with the help of X-rays IV - J. E. de Graaf . .	92	Television with Nipkow disc and interlaced scanning - H. Rinia	285
Voltage regulation of direct current generators by means of triodes - N. A. J. Voorhoeve and F. H. de Jong . .	97	The "Rotalix" tube for X-ray diagnosis - J. H. van der Tuuk	292
The behaviour of amplifier valves at very high frequencies - M. J. O. Strutt and A. van der Ziel	103	The diffraction of light by sound film - J. F. Schouten .	298
A car radio - J. W. Alexander	112	Impulse voltage installations - W. Hondius Boldingh .	306
The sealing of metal leads through hard glass and silica - B. Jonas	119	The brightness of road surfaces under artificial illumination - J. Bergmans	313
Fluorescence - W. de Groot	125	The electro-acoustic installation in the League of Nations Palace in Geneva - N. A. J. Voorhoeve and P. J. Bourdrez .	322
Technical applications of secondary emission - J. L. H. Jonker and M. C. Teves	133	The production and use of neutrons - F. A. Heyn . .	331
Auditorium acoustics and intelligibility - R. Vermeulen	139	Applications of cathode ray tubes IV - H. van Suchtelen .	339
Pumping plant for radio valves (Picture)	147	Zirconium and its compounds with a high melting point - J. D. Fast	345
Applications of cathode ray tubes II - H. van Suchtelen	148	Quantitative considerations of electric welding - J. ter Berg	352
Electrical phenomena in the positive column at low pressure - W. Uyterhoeven	157	The illumination of passenger ships - L. C. Kalff . .	356
Thermojunctions - J. W. L. Köhler	165	Auditorium acoustics and sound absorption - R. Vermeulen	363
Assembly of wireless receivers (Picture)	174		
The illumination of the new League of Nations Palace in Geneva - L. C. Kalff	175		

VOLUME 4, 1939

Page	Page		
A film projection installation with water-cooled mercury lamps - G. Heller	2	Synthetic sound - J. F. Schouten	167
Overhead welding - J. Sack	9	The well-lighted house - L. C. Kalff	174
Illumination and black-outs - P. J. Bouma	15	Illumination by means of linear sources of light - N. A. Halbertsma and G. P. Ittmann	181
Carrier-telephony on loaded cables - F. de Fremery and G. J. Levenbach	20	The magnetron as a generator of ultra short waves - G. Heller	189
The role of mercury lamps with fluorescent bulbs in photography - J. A. M. van Liempt	27	A cathode ray oscillograph - J. D. Veegens	198
Lamps for lighthouses - Th. J. J. A. Manders and L. J. van der Moer	29	The pitch of musical instruments and orchestras - Balth. van der Pol and C. C. J. Addink	205
Picture taken during the assembly of a large filament lamp for 110 V. 10 kW	41	The radiation of sound - A. Th. van Urk and R. Vermeulen	213
The Nipkow disc - H. Rinia and L. Leblans	42	Measurements of potential by means of the electrolytic tank - G. Hepp	223
Time lag phenomena in gas-filled photoelectric cells - A. A. Kruithoff	48	Rapid chemical analysis with the mercury dropping electrode and an oscillograph or measuring bridge as indicator - J. Boeke and H. van Suchtelen	231
Recording the characteristics of transmitting valves - Tj. Douma and P. Zijlstra	56	Combating radio interferences - L. Blok	237
The illumination of railway yards with sodium lamps - H. Zijl	61	The propagation of wireless waves round the earth - Balth. van der Pol and H. Bremmer	245
A photometer for the investigation of the colour rendering reproduction of various light sources - P. M. van Alphen	66	Pressure condensers - C. de Lange	254
A motor van for sound recording by the Philips-Miller system - M. J. C. van der Meulen	73	Physical photometry - J. Voogd	260
Non-linear distortion in loaded cables - G. J. Levenbach and H. van de Weg	79	An electron switch - C. Dorsman and S. L. de Bruin . .	267
Application of cathode ray tubes in mass production - H. van Suchtelen	85	An electrical megaphone - J. de Boer	271
The illumination and beaconing of aerodromes - G. L. van Heel	93	Radio receiving sets with linear action tuning condensers - S. Gradstein	277
Blocking layer rectifiers - W. Ch. van Geel	100	Radio sets with station dials calibrated for short waves - G. Heller	284
A simple apparatus for sound recording - K. de Boer and A. Th. van Urk	106	An acoustic spectroscope - J. F. Schouten	290
Several problems of X-ray fluoroscopy - B. van Dijk . .	114	Measurements carried out on road lighting systems already installed - P. J. Bouma	292
The testing of electric fuses with the cathode ray oscillograph - J. A. M. van Liempt and J. A. de Vriend . .	118	The efficiency of loud speakers - J. de Boer	301
Air-cooled transmitting valves - M. van de Beek . . .	121	The preparation of metals in a compact form by pressing and sintering - J. D. Fast	309
The manufacture of rare gases - H. C. A. Holleman . .	128	On improving of defect hearing - K. de Boer and R. Vermeulen	316
The equipment of broadcasting studios - S. Gradstein .	136	Receiving aerials - J. van Slooten	320
Sound diffusers in loud speakers - J. de Boer	144	An apparatus for artificial respiration ("Iron lung") - J. B. Aninga and G. C. E. Burger	325
The significance of a constant peak time in photo flash bulbs - J. A. M. van Liempt and P. Leydens	148	The electrical resistance of metal contacts - J. J. Went .	332
A million volt X-ray tube - J. H. van der Tuuk	153	Tubular luminescence lamps - P. Schouwstra and G. Zecher	337
A new principle of construction for radio valves - P. G. Cath	162	Television receivers - G. Heller	342
		The dry shaving apparatus "Philishave" - A. Horowitz, A. van Dam and W. H. van der Mei	350
		The testing of loud speakers - R. Vermeulen	354

VOLUME 5, 1940

Page	Page		
The new luminous standard - G. Heller	1	A new push-pull amplifier valve for decimetre waves -	
The laryngophone - J. de Boer and K. de Boer	6	M. J. O. Strutt and A. van der Ziel	172
Drilling diamond dies	14	Experiments with stereophonic records - K. de Boer . .	182
Reflecting surfaces in the neighbourhood of linear sources of light - N. A. Halbertsma	16	Output and distortion of output amplifier valves under different loads - A. J. Heins van der Ven	189
X-ray photographs with extremely short exposure times - W. J. Oosterkamp	22	A permanent magnet which can lift 3 500 times its own weight - J. L. Snoek	195
The investigation of rapidly changing mechanical stresses with the cathode ray oscilloscope - S. L. de Bruin . .	26	The use of selenium valves in rectifiers - D. M. Duinker .	199
The use of modern steels for permanent magnets - A. Th. van Urk	29	Measurement of phase angles with the help of the cathode ray tube - W. Nijenhuis	208
Perspectives in the development of the violin - R. Vermeulen	36	Technical temperature measurement with thermoelements	214
Interesting lighting effects of the Liege Water Exposition - L. C. Kalf	42	Metals as getters - J. D. Fast	217
Quantitative considerations in colour photography by the additive method - J. F. H. Custers	48	A new fitting for Roadlighting - J. Bergmans	222
The electrometer triode and its applications - H. van Suchtelen	54	An electrodynamic pick-up for the investigation of mechanical vibrations - J. Severs	230
Testing amplifier output valves by means of the cathode ray tube - A. J. Heins van der Ven	61	Absorption phenomena at metal contacts - J. J. Went .	238
X-ray apparatus for the macroscopic examination of materials - J. E. de Graaf	69	Standardization of acoustic quantities - R. Vermeulen .	243
The transport of sound film in apparatus for recording and reproduction - J. J. C. Hardenberg	74	A cathode ray tube with postacceleration - J. de Gier .	245
Tungsten ribbon lamps for optical measurements - J. Voogd	82	A photocell with amplification by means of secondary emission - M. C. Teves	253
Measurements in the Philips rare gas plant - H. C. A. Holleman	88	X-ray photographs with the camera - A. Bouwers and G. C. E. Burger	258
Black-out by the filter method - E. L. J. Matthews and J. A. M. van Liempt	93	A tone generator - L. Blok	263
The hum due to the magnetic field of the filaments in transmitting valves - K. Posthumus	100	Subjective photometry - J. Voogd	270
Stereophonic sound reproduction - K. de Boer	107	A cathode ray tube for use in tool making - S. L. de Bruin and C. Dorsman	277
The reproduction of high and low tones in radio receiving sets - V. Cohen Henriquez	115	The perception of pitch - J. F. Schouten	286
The swaging of tungsten rods (Picture)	121	Natural illumination and visibility at night - P. J. Bouma .	296
The distribution of the light reflected by different ceiling and wall materials - Joh. Jansen	125	The measurement of very small phase displacements - C. G. Koops	300
Electron trajectories in multigrid valves - J. L. H. Jonker	131	The localization of objects in the human body - A. Bouwers	309
Microphones - J. de Boer	140	Wireless telephony with moving motorcars - C. G. A. von Lindern	315
The accuracy of measurements of field strength - J. D. Veegens and J. J. Zaalberg van Zelst	149	Optical experiments with models of the directional distribution of sound in halls - R. Vermeulen	321
The use of X-rays and cathode rays in chemical and metallographic investigations - W. G. Burgers	157	Geometrical configurations and duality of electrical networks - B. D. H. Tellegen	324
Technical photometry of gas-discharge lamps - P. J. Oranje	166	An apparatus for the measurement of the photographic density of films - J. M. Ledebuur	331
View of a part of the industrial plant of N. V. Philips' Gloeilampenfabrieken, Eindhoven (Picture)	171	Rearlights and reflectors for bicycles - H. A. E. Keitz .	335
		The blended-light lamp and other mercury lamps with improved colour rendering, by E. L. J. Mathews . . .	341
		An electrical pressure indicator for internal combustion engines, by P. J. Hagendoorn and M. F. Reynst . .	348
		A variable amplifier valve with double cathode connection suitable for metre waves, by M. J. Strutt and A. van der Ziel	357
		Alphabetical index, volumes 1-5	363
		Chronological index, volumes 1-5	368